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ABSTRACT

"Tora no Maki" or "Scroll of the Tiger" is a teacher's guide designed to aid in teaching appropriate standards for social studies content and skills, using a contemporary focus on Japan's culture and economy. The 19 lessons are divided into three grade levels: elementary school, middle school, and high school. Topics of the lessons include: classroom rules, geography, festivals and holidays, housing, trade relationships, spirituality, values, history, transportation, standards of living, working conditions and work ethic, agriculture. and demographics. Each lesson addresses specific National Council for the Social Studies Standards and lists objectives, time allotment, resources required, assessment, and primary source material. (KCM)

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Tora no Maki

LESSONS FOR TEACHING ABOUT CONTEMPORARY JAPAN

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National Council for the Social Studies

Tora no Maki

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National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) is the leading association of social studies educators in the United States. Founded in 1921, NCSS is dedicated to the promotion of social studies and its role in preparing students for citizen participation in public life. The Council publishes books on important issues affecting social studies education, as well as four periodicals, *Social Education, Theory and Research in Social Education, Social Studies and the Young Learner*, and *The Social Studies Professional*. NCSS has members in all 50 states, as well as almost 70 countries outside the United States.

The opinions and information presented in these lessons reflect the observations and experiences of the 1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellows and do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of the Keizai Koho Center or National Council for the Social Studies.

Tora no Maki

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Preface

In the summer of 1995, I had the express joy and privilege of traveling to Japan with the 1995 Keizai Koho Center (KKC) Fellows, representing the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) as its President-Elect. Having traveled to Japan in 1986 as a KKC Fellow, this opportunity served as a very special reprise of an experience that, for many members as well as myself, will forever stand as a shining international partnership in NCSS history. We should be very proud of our long-standing relationship with KKC and the impact it has had on teachers and therefore the students of the United States, Canada, and Australia.

Tora no Maki – literally, "Scroll of Tiger" – is a book of lessons that reflects the real work of real teachers who work with real children. It is not the work of theorists or philosophers. It expresses what people who struggle to teach – little people, bigger people, youngsters who deal with serious economic and social issues, and junior citizens who have an insatiable curiosity about the bigger world – feel students should experience about the wonders of Japan as the country faces the challenges of a new century in which developments in Japan and the larger "Pacific Rim" will have important effects on the working lives of today's students. The 1995 KKC Fellows formed a very special group and *Tora no Maki* stands in its honor. More than that, this work honors the many members of NCSS who understand and share these challenges, and who will benefit from the many ideas and insights to be gained from this book.

In addition to those whose creative energies provided the substance of *Tora no Maki*, there are many others whose dedication and commitment made this work possible, and thanks go to them as well:

Special thanks go to the project leaders: Jack Hoar, Fred Ginocchio, Rita Geiger and John Hergesheimer. Each added his or her own special perspective and expertise which gave exceptional guidance toward turning good ideas into truly professional material.

To the Keizai Koho Center goes tremendous appreciation for funding the printing of this book. Because of KKC financial support, all NCSS comprehensive members will receive a copy and additional copies are affordable.

We extend our unending gratitude to Leo A. Shinozaki, Director of the Japan Business Information Center of KKC in New York City for his many and continuing contributions to the project, including the name *Tora no Maki* and cover calligraphy. In addition to its literal translation, "Scroll of Tiger," *Tora no Maki* means "Teacher's Guide" in Japan.

Heartfelt gratitude accompanies our fond memories of Charles von Loewenfeldt, who guided the KKC Fellowships Program and developed the concept of the *Tora no Maki* project.

To Susan Crosier we owe a special debt of gratitude for her "behind-the-scenes" efforts to plan and organize the travel experience for 16 years' worth of KKC Fellows.

Certainly no project such as this grows out of untended fields. Linda Wojtan has tended the fields of the NCSS-KKC partnership for several years, with a very special knowledge of all the necessary elements that produce a successful crop. She has traveled with the KKC Fellows in Japan, serving as "wardrobe advisor," "major editor," and a kind of "glue" for the NCSS-KKC partnership, and specifically for this project.

Finally, there are those who put the finishing touches on *Tora no Maki*: Mary Hammond Bernson, Associate Director of the East Asia Center at the University of Washington, carefully reviewed the manuscript, and Richard Wilson of Intelligent Tool and Eye designed the layout. We thank these dedicated folks as well.

Representing National Council for the Social Studies, I am truly honored to have my name attached to *Tora no Maki*, to the experience from which it was born, and to the group of professionals who gave it life.

DR. PAT NICKELL, President, NCSS
Washington, D.C.
July 1996

Dedication

Charles von Loewenfeldt

1916 – 1994

We wish to pay tribute to the memory of Charles von Loewenfeldt, who had the vision for the Keizai Koho Center Fellowships and spearheaded implementation of the program for many years until his death in 1994. We think he would be pleased with the educational endeavors of the 1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellows represented in this *Tora no Maki* publication.

SUSAN CROSIER
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High School Team Leader

7

Tora no Maki

INTRODUCTION

In the summer of 1995, twenty educators from the United States and two from Canada participated in the 1995 Keizai Koho Center (The Japan Institute for Social and Economic Affairs) Fellowships Program. While communication and comprehensive understanding were often challenging, the Fellows found the experience worthwhile and productive. These Fellows, representing fourteen states and two provinces, travelled from their orientation in San Francisco to observe and study in Tokyo, Hiroshima, and Kyoto. Their study included visits to schools, industries, historical and cultural sites as well as a home stay with a Japanese family.

The 1995 program marks the sixteenth consecutive year the Keizai Koho Center has offered these study fellowships to enhance the teaching of global perspectives to educators desiring to become better acquainted with contemporary Japanese society. The program is conducted in cooperation with National Council for the Social Studies.

Divided into elementary, middle, and high school study groups, the 1995 KKC Fellows studied Japanese culture and economy in relationship to the recently published *Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* developed by National Council for the Social Studies. Fellows directed special attention to "Culture" (Theme I) and "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" (Theme VII). This focus resulted in a collection of accessible lesson plans designed to be taught in United States and Canadian schools. While each lesson was written for a specific level, lessons and lesson content may be appropriate at other grade levels as well. Individual lesson topics are identified in introductions to grade level sections. *Tora no Maki* (Teacher's Guide) is the name chosen for the collection, which has the goal of teaching appropriate standards for social studies content and skills, using a contemporary focus on Japan's culture and economy. Appropriate strands from the NCSS Standards are identified in each *Tora no Maki* lesson. Future Keizai Koho Center Fellows will address social studies standards related to the themes "The Japanese People in the World Today" (1996), and "Citizenship, Technology and Global Connections in Today's Japan" (1997).

Ties between the United States, Canada, and Japan are now, and are likely to remain strong, extensive and evolving. Canadian and U.S. students who use these lessons will reap benefits from greater knowledge of Japan – its people, culture, and economy. The lesson plans developed by the 1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellows attempt to provide accurate content, based upon fact-finding and first hand observation. While dispelling stereotypes is a primary goal, the KKC Fellows recognize that Japan is changing and these lesson plans only begin the process of deeper understanding and appreciation among the people of Japan, the United States, and Canada.

Having students learn more, and more accurately, about Japanese culture and economy is a worthwhile goal. The 1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellows commend these *Tora no Maki* lesson plans to you for your consideration and use. They welcome your evaluative comments and invite your attention to the selection process for participation in future Keizai Koho Center Fellowships Programs.

JACK N. HOAR
Project Director
1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellowships Program

TORA NO MAKI (SCROLL OF TIGER)

Origin

The "Scroll of Tiger" originated from an old Chinese tactical manual for military use before the 9th Century C.E. The manual consisted of six volumes, one of which was titled: "TIGER". A Buddhist high priest returned from China and introduced the manual to Japanese feudal lords in the late 11th Century.

Meaning

1. A manual or reference book containing expertise on a particular subject.
2. Manuals or books especially designed for teachers as guides in teaching.
3. Quick reference booklets.

Introduction to Elementary School Lessons

This first section of the *Tora no Maki* lesson plan book contains a set of lessons written by elementary educators for use in elementary classrooms. These lessons, designed to assist teachers in teaching about Japan to their students while using a standards-based approach, may be used independently or as part of a unit on Japan.

The lessons were developed in accordance with the following statement from the *Social Studies for Early Childhood and Elementary School Children – Preparing for the 21st Century*, NCSS Position Statement, June 1988:

> For elementary school children, as well as for all age groups, social studies have several purposes. The social studies equip them with the knowledge and understanding of the past necessary for coping with the present and planning for the future, enable them to understand and participate effectively in their world, and explain their relationship to other people and to social, economic, and political institutions. Social studies can provide students with the skills for productive problem solving and decision making, as well as for assessing issues and making thoughtful...judgments. Above all, the social studies help students to integrate these skills and understandings into a framework for responsible citizen participation, whether in their play group, the school, the community, or the world.

Two major concepts of social studies are space and time. Space includes the remote environment which is learned about largely through vicarious experience. Time consists of the past, present, and future. Elementary students relate principally to the present. The activities in this section focus on present experience and help students understand a country, Japan, that is not in their immediate environment. They do this by relating concepts with which students are familiar to similar concepts in the Japanese culture and providing activities that involve the students in active learning.

In the lesson developed by Greg Barta, students are introduced to the Japanese game of ***kendama***. Students learn about the origins of ***kendama***, develop an appreciation for the game and the concepts needed to succeed at ***kendama*** and life, and construct and participate in a game of ***kendama***. Through this lesson students will be actively involved in solving problems, developing fine motor skills, and learning the significance of concentration and persistence in Japanese life.

Dr. Linda Bennett's lesson focuses on classroom rules in Japan. During the lesson primary students will learn about responsible citizen participation through a comparison of rules in their class with those in a first grade in Japan. Students will assess rules in a Japanese classroom to learn about the similarities and differences in cultural expectations and customs in Japan and their own class.

The lesson written by Helen Cattanach teaches primary students about the geography of Japan. They will also learn about the economic concept of supply and demand by exploring which commonly used Japanese items are produced in Japan and which ones must be imported.

The common thread of holidays, festivals, and celebrations (***matsuri*** as they are known in Japan) forms the basis for the lesson by Robert Stremme. Every culture has certain ***matsuri*** it commemorates. In this lesson students will learn about the ***matsuri*** found in Japan and the United States and will compare and contrast them. Also, students will describe how ***matsuri*** serve to unite people with similar cultures and help explain the relationship of people with each other.

Suzanne Zaremba introduces students to Japan by using strategies from the National Diffusion Network's program, "Talents Unlimited." Using situation cards based on the "Talents Unlimited" approach, students utilize critical thinking skills to develop solutions to issues they might face if they were living in Japan. Students will also interview community people who have lived in Japan to form a basis for a comparison of the culture of Japan and the United States.

In Rita Geiger's lesson students will discover that in Japan there is an emphasis on harmony with one's environment that is evident in many aspects of Japanese life, one of which is housing. Students will explore different types of housing in Japan and construct a model of a traditional Japanese house.

The elementary team is pleased to submit these lessons for your use in helping your students gain knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of Japanese culture.

RITA I. GEIGER
Elementary Team Leader

TOPIC

The Japanese *Kendama* and Its Role in Socialization

by Gregory G. Barta
Sand Lake Elementary School, Anchorage, Alaska

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture

  c. Explain and give examples of how language, literature, the arts, architecture, other artifacts, traditions, beliefs, values, and behaviors contribute to the development and transmission of culture.

VI. Power, Authority, and Governance

  a. Examine the rights and responsibilities of the individual in relation to his or her social group, such as family, peer group, and school class.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Around the time of the American Revolution a European game played with a cup and ball was introduced to Japan from China (this game had come to China by way of the "Silk Road.") The design of the original *kendama* brought to Japan has been modified over the years and is today similar in spirit though different in appearance. The object of the game is to land a ball attached by a string on either the point or in one of three different sized cups on the *ken*. There are a variety of techniques used to accomplish this goal with each receiving a special name such as "airplane." Hirotake Imada, the *kendama* master who shared his vast knowledge with me, stresses that *kendama* is more than merely a child's game. He emphasizes this by customizing every *kendama* he assembles by writing on them *kokoro no nebari* (persistence) and *shinen* (concentration). He stresses that through these two behaviors one can be successful in Japan. Throughout my study in the country, I found that these behaviors permeated nearly every aspect of life in Japan.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- identify the different types of *kendama* used throughout history.
- identify the names of the different parts of the modern *kendama* by labeling a picture.
- describe how persistence and concentration relate to Japanese attitudes toward life.

Attitude – Students will:

- gain an appreciation of *kendama* through play.
- understand the role of persistence and concentration in success in both *kendama* and life.

Skills – Students will:

- construct their own variation of the *kendama*.
- demonstrate their fine motor skills through use of their *kendama*.

TIME ALLOTMENT

- an introductory lesson displaying pictures of various *kendama* and information on how *kendama* came to Japan.
- one evening at home for students to collect the various supplies they may need to build their own *kendama*.
- a class session to build *kendama*.
- as many sessions as the teacher believes are appropriate for students to work on their *kendama* skills.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- photocopies or overhead transparencies of the different *kendama* and the modern *kendama* with its parts labelled (Appendix 1: Directions and Illustrations for Playing *Kendama*)
- string, strong fishing line or dental floss
- plastic cups, chopsticks, spools, etc., from which to construct a *ken*
- old balls that can be modified with a hole through the center.

PROCEDURE

A. Introduce the *kendama* through pictures, or if you have obtained a *kendama* from Japan (for information on ordering a *kendama* from Japan, please see Teacher Resources) by demonstrating an actual play.

B. Explain the significance of concentration and persistence to being successful at *kendama* and life.

C. Have students collect supplies to build their own *kendama*.

D. Build the *kendama*.

E. Practice using the *kendama*.

F. Teachers may wish to give awards for construction and skill at some point.

G. Students may conduct research to see if they can find similar games in different cultures, e.g. the yo-yo requires many of the same skills.

ASSESSMENT

- Students properly draw and label the parts of the modern *kendama*.

- Students build *kendama* with materials supplied or brought from home.
- Students demonstrate knowledge of what some of the common maneuvers are called.
- Students demonstrate persistence and concentration while acquiring fine motor skills using a *kendama.*
- Students articulate verbally or in writing why *kendama* is viewed by those who play it as more than just a game
- Students explain the significance of concentration and persistence in Japanese life through a written or oral exercise

TEACHER RESOURCES

Nihon Kendama Kyokai
2-2-7 Kitahara
Tanashi-shi
Tokyo 188, Japan
Attn: Mrs. Fujiwara
Fax +81-424-61-0186

Please note: *kendama* can be ordered from this association, but payment must be in *yen.* The cost for each *kendama* is 800 *yen* plus shipping, and an English language pamphlet is available; please note that only small orders to individuals can be accommodated. A Japanese language video is available for 3,000 *yen.* Although the video is in Japanese, it is understandable to someone who does not speak the language. I highly recommend it. Please note that orders must be kept under $1,250 in value or you must post a customs bond. *Kendama* are classified as "other toy" #9503.90.0030 and are duty free. For more information please contact Greg Barta: school tel (907) 243-2161; school fax (907) 243-6025.

Pacific Friend Magazine. Distributors: Japan Publications Trading Co., Ltd., P.O. Box 5030, Tokyo International, Tokyo 100, Japan. Annual subscription – US $54.00, including postage via sea mail (airmail postage extra). This magazine has a variety of useful articles and pictures that can be used for learning about life in Japan. Copies are sometimes available through the Consulates General of Japan offices.

Japan in Your Pocket. This series is very readable and one that students will easily understand. It is published by Japan Travel Bureau, Inc. The partial list of titles includes: *Living Japanese Style, Japanese Families and Customs* and *Festivals of Japan.*

APPENDIX 1

DIRECTIONS AND ILLUSTRATIONS FOR PLAYING *KENDAMA*

(Courtesy of the Japan Kendama Association)

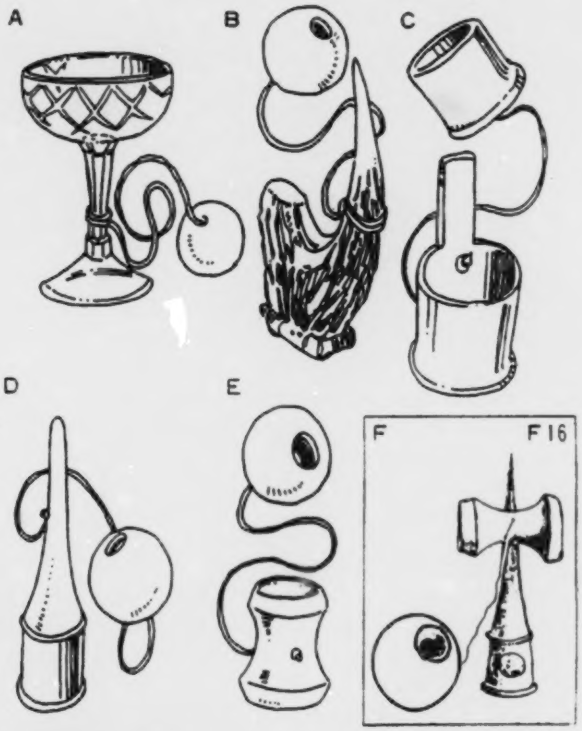

ILLUSTRATION 1

A. Original model from Europe

B. Deer horn and ball: this is the model that was first introduced to Japan

C. Bamboo and ball: a deer horn was so expensive for the common people that they substituted bamboo for the deer horn

D. The *ken* and ball: this model was in use until the big cup and little cup were invented in 1923 by Fukutaro Suzuki in Tokyo

E. Big cup and small cup

F. F16 Kendama or NKK-F16 (today's model) N.K.K. for the Nippon Kendama Kyokai (Japan Kendama Association)

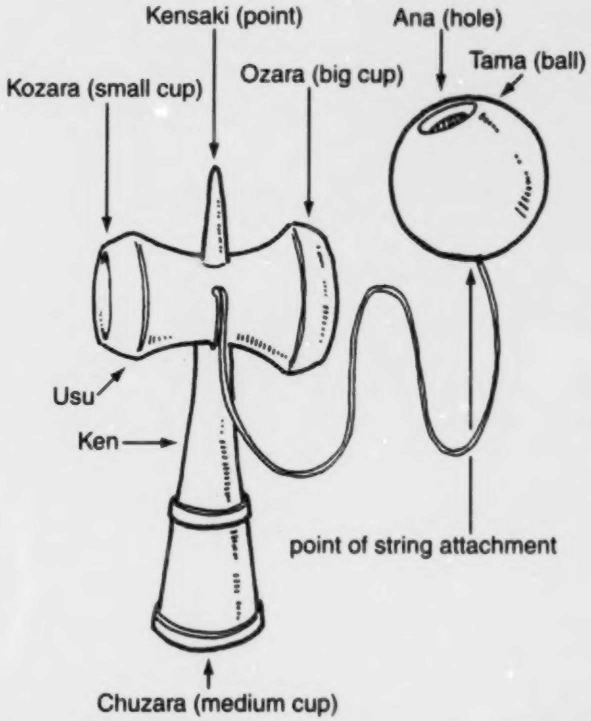
Kensaki (point)
Ana (hole)
Tama (ball)
Kozara (small cup)
Ozara (big cup)
Usu
Ken
point of string attachment
Chuzara (medium cup)

ILLUSTRATION 2

The Parts of the Modern *Kendama*

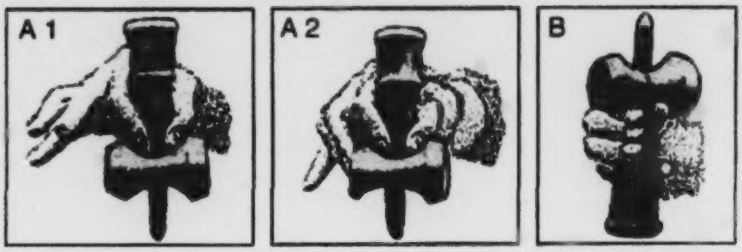

ILLUSTRATION 3
DIFFERENT WAYS TO HOLD THE *KENDAMA*

A1. Hold near the neck of the *ken* with the thumb and the index finger.

A2. Put the middle finger and the third finger on the small cup to stabilize the *ken* and point the center of the big cup toward your heart.

B. This hold is for *Tome-ken*, *Furi-ken*, Around Japan (or around your own country), and Around the World, etc.

Basic Positions:

A. Hold the *ken* with the point downwards.

B. Hold the *ken* with the point upwards.

C. Put your right foot forward when you play with your right hand. This position is for the *Furi-ken*, Airplane, etc.

Basic Techniques Used by the NKK:

The motion of the knees is very important in *kendama*.

To catch the ball in the big, medium or small cup:

A. Bend your knees in a relaxed position (much like a tennis player waiting for a serve) and watch the ball at the point where the string is attached.

B. Straighten your knees gently while flipping the *ken* upwards to bring the ball up.

C. Bend your knees again while catching the ball in the cup. Also try to have "soft hands" to cushion the landing.

Candle:

The same as catching the ball in the medium cup, but only the *ken* is gripped by the point.

***Tome-ken* (catching the ball on the point):**

A. Hold the *ken* in position B of Illustration 3 and be sure that the ball is completely still.

B. Bend the knees and with a quick snap bring the ball straight up. If the motion is not straight up the ball will rotate and the hole will not be in the correct location for spearing with the point.

C. Bend the knees again to cushion the catch on the point.

***Furi-ken* (catching a ball that is swung outward in an arc on the point):**

A. Assume basic position C (see above) and bend your knees slightly, holding the ken nearly vertical although leaning slightly away from your body.

B. Swing the ball outward and at about 90 degrees pull it sharply toward you.

C. Bend your knees again, catching the ball on the point.

Around Japan:

Catch the ball first on the small cup, then the big cup and finally the point. It will take a lot of practice to get the hole facing the medium cup so that you can catch the ball on the point.

Airplane:

Same directions as swinging the ball out and catching it, except this time you hold the ball and swing the *ken* catching the point in the hole of the ball.

Lighthouse:

Hold the ball and snap the *ken* straight up, catching the *ken* with the medium cup landing on the ball.

TOPIC

Classroom Rules in Japan

by Dr. Linda Bennett
University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, Missouri

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  b. Give examples of how experiences may be interpreted differently by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.

X. Civic Ideals and Practices
  j. Recognize and interpret how the "common good" can be strengthened through various forms of citizen action.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Rules in the classroom are established to guide the behavior of students. In this lesson students will examine the rules in a Japanese first grade classroom and compare the rules to their classroom rules. The students will evaluate rules and analyze how rules reflect the norms of Japanese society and culture.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- discuss the purpose of classroom rules in school and society.
- evaluate the rules in a Japanese classroom and the students' own classroom.

Attitude – Students will:

- appreciate the similarities and differences of cultural expectations and customs.
- understand the role of the "common good" in Japanese classrooms.

Skills – Students will:

- take notes.
- draw a representation of an important rule.
- write in their journal why the rule is important.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- list of classroom rules
- photos or video of students in Japan
- drawing and writing materials

PROCEDURE

A. Begin the lesson by sharing with students the following observation of a school in Japan: One Saturday in June, two sixth-grade students are supervising a game of jump rope for a group of first graders on the playground. The sixth-grade students wear pennants (which signify their leadership) and throw the rope for the younger students. The older students are responsible for supervising and monitoring the behavior of the first graders.

B. Read a story or show photos or video of students in Japanese elementary schools (see teacher resource list). During the presentation, each student should list his or her observations of the rules students in Japan follow during the school day.

C. The teacher instructs the students to stand behind their chairs. The teacher shows students how Japanese students bow when their teacher enters in the morning. The teacher leaves the room temporarily and when he/she returns students should bow in unison.

D. In small groups have students share their discoveries from the videos or photos.

E. The teacher facilitates a class discussion on school rules. Students should consider answers to the following questions throughout the lesson. What are the rules in the situation? How do the students know the rules? Who enforces the rules? What are our classroom rules? Why do we have rules in our classroom? Who is responsible for enforcing the rules? What are the consequences if rules are not followed? How do we know what the rules are in a classroom?

F. Read and discuss the rules of a Japanese first grade classroom. "1. Be cheerful; 2. Be active; 3. Be enthusiastic; 4. Smile; 5. Enjoy your life." (Translation of first grade classroom rules in an elementary school in Hiroshima, Japan – June 1995. School objectives and guidelines are listed in the Discussion Notes.)

G. Class discussion should incorporate answers to the following questions.

What rules are similar or different in our classroom?

Why are some of the rules in a Japanese school different from our class?

What social norms in Japan are the basis for the rules in the classroom? (see Discussion Notes).

Which of the Japanese rules may or may not be followed in our classroom?

H. Evaluation of Rules.

The class selects a rule to evaluate. The students discuss the rule using the following five guidelines:

1. Well designed to achieve its purpose;
2. Understandable – clearly written and purposes are explicit;
3. Possible to follow – does not demand the impossible;
4. Fair – not biased for or against any individual or group;
5. Designed to protect individual rights and promote the common good (Source: National Standards for Civics and Government, 1994).

I. Each student will select the rule that he/she feels meets the guidelines and is an important rule to follow. The rule can come from the classroom rules, or the list of classroom rules from the first grade in Japan, or he/she can develop a new rule.

J. On the board the teacher draws the universal sign for "no bicycles" or "no smoking." Then students draw a clear and simple design to represent the rule they selected as an important rule.

K. Students will write the rule and write a paragraph about why they think the rule is important. Example: "No Smoking." Smoking is bad for your health and others. There are laws against smoking in public places.

L. The drawing and descriptions will be discussed in small groups. Peers will provide feedback on how accurately the drawings depict the rule and the reason why it is an important rule.

M. The students' work should be displayed in the classroom.

ASSESSMENT

The students will draw one rule and write why the rule is important.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. After the lesson, have students select a new rule to follow.

B. Interview an adult who went to the school over ten years ago and ask what the classroom rules were then.

C. Simulate a situation where a rule is being broken and discuss the consequences.

TEACHER RESOURCE LIST

Doi, Takeo. *The Anatomy of Dependence: The Individual Versus Society*. Tokyo: Kodansha, 1974.

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Children of Japan Series. Lincoln, NE: Great Plains National, 1987.

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Kimmel, Eric. *The Greatest of All: A Japanese Folktale.* New York: Holiday, 1991.

Say, Allen. *Once Under the Cherry Blossom Tree.* New York: Harper & Row, 1974.

DISCUSSION NOTES

The behavior and attitudes of young school children are the first steps to learning to become a member of Japanese society. The individual is a member of a group such as the classroom and is expected to follow the rules of the group. Each member of the group is expected to be cooperative and supportive to the group. The peer leader is responsible for the behavior of the group.

The rules that govern the school experiences of children in Japan begin with the school objectives and guidelines and then the teacher develops classroom rules. The enforcement of rules in Japanese schools is primarily done by the child's peers with minimal teacher interference.

School Educational Objectives:

EXAMPLE 1.

The school is primarily responsible for the education of well-rounded children with the integration of right morals and physical strength. Children who make good judgments and think creatively. To develop humane and rich children. Children who have solidarity with society and the common good. (Translation from Senda Elementary School, Hiroshima, Japan.)

EXAMPLE 2.

1. To bring up pupils who can think for themselves, have sound judgment and act on their own initiative (intellectual aspect).
2. To bring up pupils who love nature, respect the human kind and feel both aesthetic and moral sentiments (moral and ethical aspect).
3. To bring up healthy pupils with full physical capability, vigor and strong wills (physical aspect). (Educational Objectives for Ochanomizu University Attached Elementary School.)

TOPIC

Island in the Pacific

by Helen Cattanach
Markesan School District, Markesan, Wisconsin

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

III. People, Places and Environments

- a. Construct and use mental maps of locales, regions, and the world that demonstrate understanding of relative location, direction, size, and shape.
- e. Locate and distinguish among varying landforms and geographic features, such as mountains, plateaus, islands and oceans.

VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption

- a. Give examples that show how scarcity and choice govern our economic decisions.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson explores location, size, and landforms. It will also incorporate ecological awareness and the supply and demand of products.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- identify landforms from a map.
- compare the size of Japan and their state.
- distinguish between products made in Japan and ones the Japanese have to import.
- paraphrase information concerning terrain.
- relate population size to the U.S.

Attitude – Students will:

- demonstrate an awareness of wants and needs in the Japanese culture due to limited supply.
- realize that choices need to be made according to supply.

Skills – Students will:

- label map and landforms.
- produce a salt map of Japan and its terrain.
- describe the products the Japanese need to import and explain why.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 to 3 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- various maps of Japan
- blank map of Japan to label and color (Appendix 1)
- map of the eight major geographic regions (Appendix 2)
- ½ cup salt and ½ cup flour for each student
- cardboard, and food color
- copy of *Japan: The Land* by Bobbie Kalman.

PROCEDURE

A. Read *Japan: The Land.* Students discuss their observations.

B. Organize students into groups and give each group a map of Japan to study (Appendix 1 – Please note that the Legend-Answer Key must be covered before copies are made for the students). Discuss various observations, drawing out specific information, e.g., Japan consists of several large islands.

C. Reproduce a map on the board and have the students come up and label the eight major geographic areas (Appendix 2 – Please note that the Legend-Answer Key must be covered before the map is reproduced). Distribute blank maps and students will then label their maps and decorate each region to look different from the other regions. Optional – students may label the large cities found on the group study map.

D. Distribute several country maps showing land terrain in various colors. Have the students discover what the different colors symbolize: for example, brown symbolizes mountain ranges. Then display a map of Japan and have the students discuss in pairs the terrain of Japan. Then discuss as a class.

E. At this point have the students refer to their maps (from yesterday) and study the shape. Give each student a ½ cup of salt and a ½ cup of flour. Mix water with salt and flour to the consistency of bread dough. Each student will make a map of Japan on a cardboard form. Have the student illustrate landforms in different colors. Have food color available for them to add to their dough.

F. Share some items made in Japan or show pictures of products, for example, fans with bamboo handles, cars, disc players, and pictures of food such as fish and sea weed. Generate a discussion leading the students to discover that paper products are often imported.

G. Share with the class that in Japan paper napkins and hand towels (in restrooms) are sometimes not readily available. Yet, wooden chopsticks are used. Restaurants hand out wash cloths, called *oshibori,* to use before the meal. Have the students discuss why napkins and hand towels might not be readily available, but wooden chopsticks are.

H. Give students a list of six products made from wood such as drawing paper, books, game boards, chairs, beds, and paper cups and have them select which three would be most important to them. Ask them to write why they chose those three. Then have students share their reasons with the rest of the class.

ASSESSMENT

- Paper map will be evaluated according to the accuracy of labels.
- Salt map will be assessed according to the accuracy of island shapes and landforms.
- Review of writing samples and observations of discussions concerning supply and demand and choices.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Various books on Japan will be available for students to read. Students may compare and contrast any states to Japan by Venn diagram (two overlapping circles).

TEACHER RESOURCE LIST

Duke, Benjamin. *The Japanese School: Lessons for Industrial America.* New York: Praeger Publishers, 1986.

White, Merry. *The Japanese Educational Challenge: A Commitment to Children.* New York: Free Press, 1987.

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CHILDREN'S LITERATURE BIBLIOGRAPHY

Kalman, Bobbie. *Japan: The Land.* New York: Crabtree Publishing Co., 1989.

Kalman, Bobbie. *Japan: The Culture.* New York: Crabtree Publishing Co., 1989.

Kalman, Bobbie. *Japan: The People.* New York: Crabtree Publishing Co., 1989.

Paterson, Katherine. *The Tale of the Mandarin Ducks.* New York: Lodestar Books, 1990.

Say, Allen, *The Bicycle Man.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1982.

Say, Allen, *Tree of Cranes.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1991.

Say, Allen, *Grandfather's Journey.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1993.

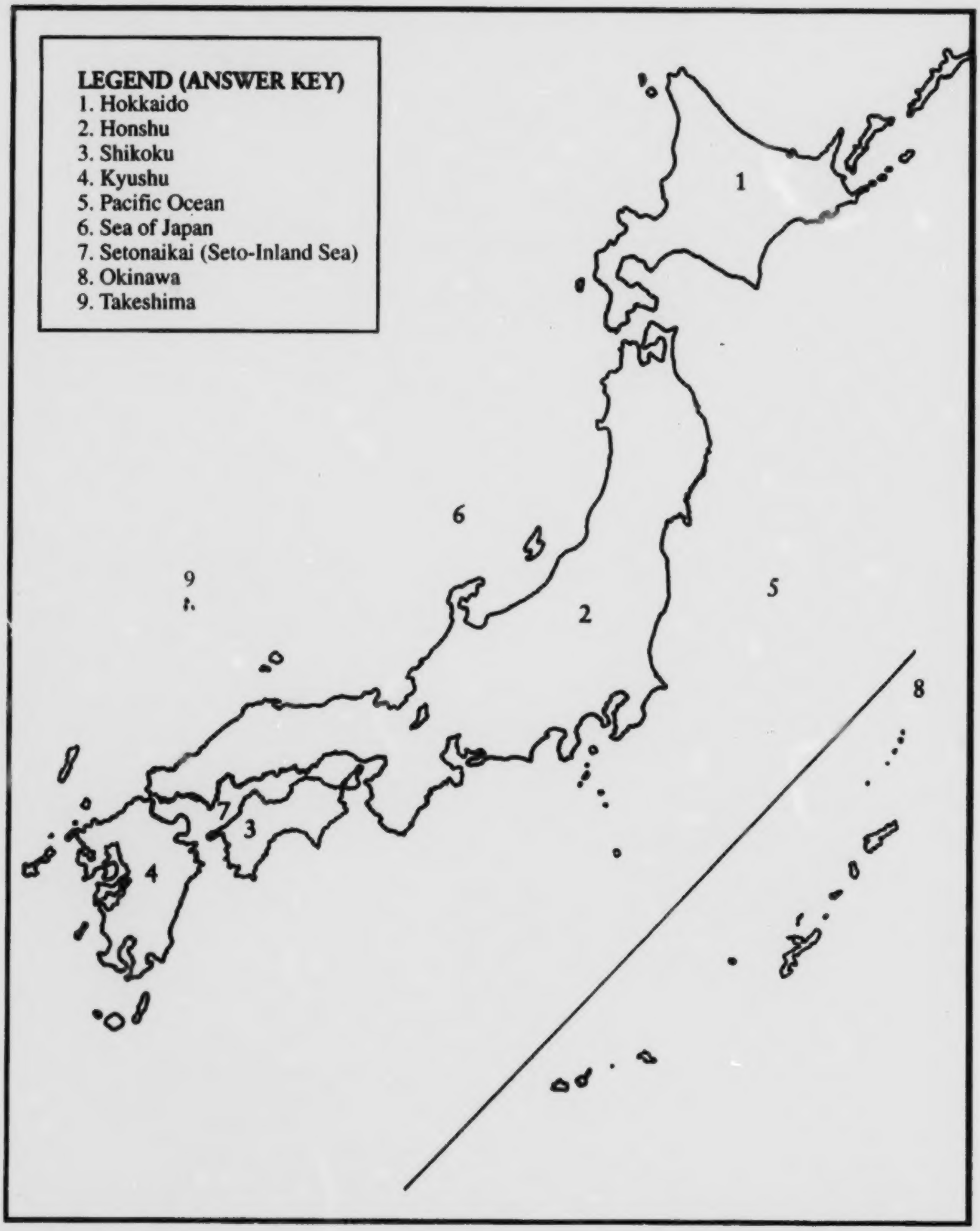
Sichel, Marion. *Japan.* National Costume Reference Series. New York: Chelsea House Publishers, 1987.

Takeshita, Jiro. *Food in Japan.* Vero Beach, FL: Rourke Publications, 1989.

Tompert, Ann. *Bamboo Hats and a Rice Cake.* New York: Crown Publishers, 1993.

Wells, Ruth and Yoshi. *A to Zen: A Book of Japanese Culture* Saxonville, MA: Picture Book Studio, 1992.

MAP OF JAPAN



LEGEND (ANSWER KEY)

1. Hokkaido
2. Honshu
3. Shikoku
4. Kyushu
5. Pacific Ocean
6. Sea of Japan
7. Setonaikai (Seto-Inland Sea)
8. Okinawa
9. Takeshima

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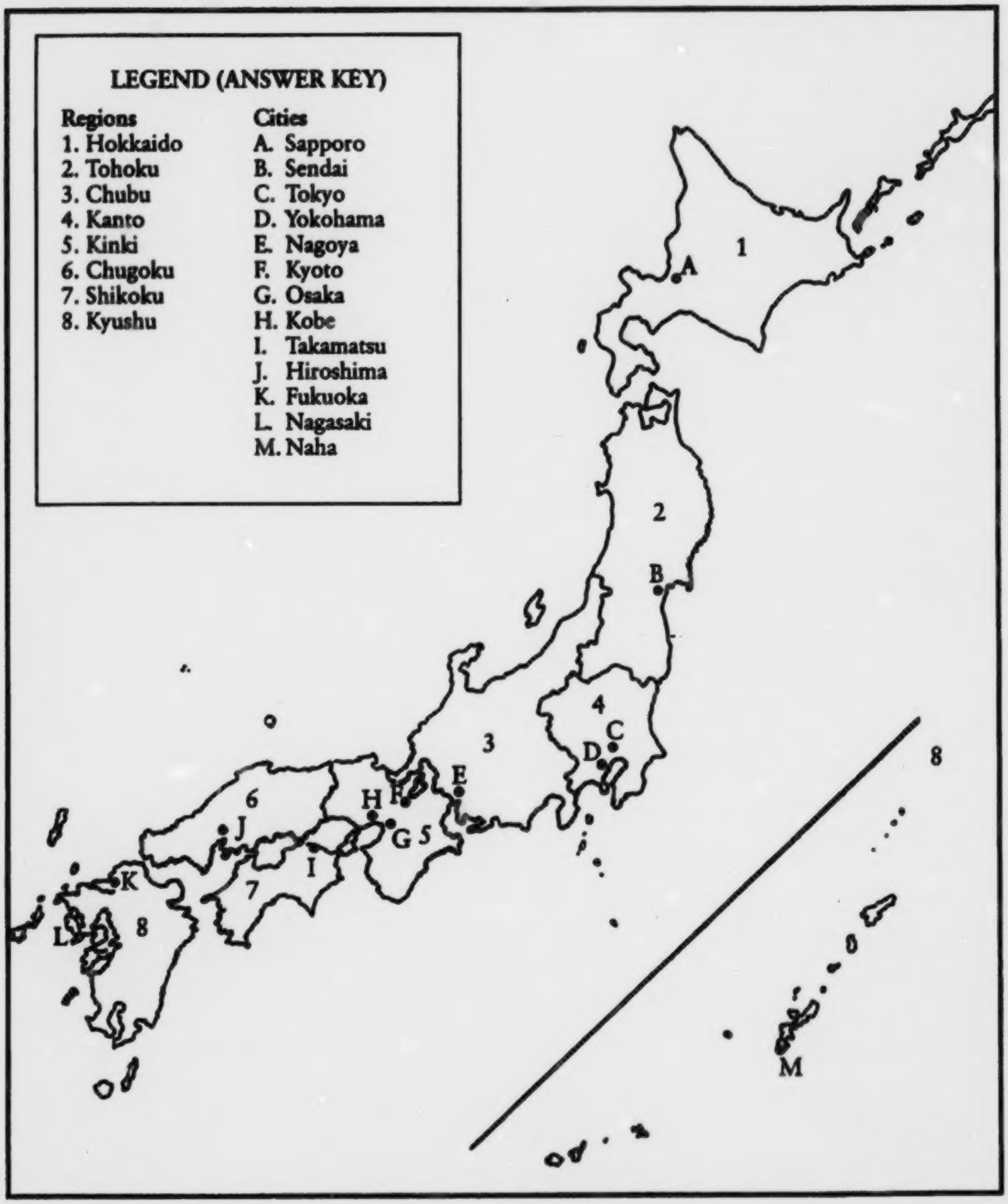
APPENDIX 2
MAP OF JAPANESE REGIONS


LEGEND (ANSWER KEY)
Regions
1. Hokkaido
2. Tohoku
3. Chubu
4. Kanto
5. Kinki
6. Chugoku
7. Shikoku
8. Kyushu
Cities
A. Sapporo
B. Sendai
C. Tokyo
D. Yokohama
E. Nagoya
F. Kyoto
G. Osaka
H. Kobe
I. Takamatsu
J. Hiroshima
K. Fukuoka
L. Nagasaki
M. Naha
1
2
3
4
5
6
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8
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TOPIC

Celebrations – *Matsuri:* 365 Days A Year

by Robert Stremme
Longstreth Elementary School, Warminster, and Eastern College, St. Davids, Pennsylvania

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture

e. Give examples and describe the importance of cultural unity and diversity within and across groups.

V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions

b. Give examples of and explain group and institutional influences such as religious beliefs, laws, and peer pressure, on people, events, and elements of culture.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Holidays, festivals, and celebrations are an integral part of every culture and a way in which people express their beliefs, group unity, and emotional well-being. In Japan these special days are called *matsuri*. *Matsuri* can be national holidays, or the specific celebrations of a shrine, temple, village, or city. Most *matsuri* can be classified as: national holiday, seasonal holiday, or commercially based celebration. In Japan any season or occasion can give rise to a *matsuri*. During this lesson students will compare and contrast four seasonal holidays of the United States with four seasonal *matsuri* found in Japan. Students will also note common holidays or *matsuri* found in both countries. For the sake of conformity, all holidays, festivals, and celebrations in both countries will be referred to as *matsuri*. In Japanese the word *matsuri* can refer to singular or plural usage.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- identify *matsuri* found in Japanese and United States cultures.
- describe traditions and elements identified with each *matsuri*.
- compare and contrast Japanese and United States *matsuri*.

Attitude – Students will:

- discover that Japan and the United States have *matsuri* in common.
- recognize that each country has unique *matsuri*.
- discover that *matsuri* serve to unite people with similar cultures.

Skills – Students will:

- diagram concept maps of *matsuri* for Japan and the United States.
- compile a calendar of shared and unique Japanese and United States *matsuri*.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 to 4 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- blank concept maps (Appendix 1)
- blank calendar worksheets (Appendix 2)
- calendar of Japanese *matsuri* (Appendix 3)
- chart paper.

PROCEDURE

A. Ask students to share the name of their favorite holiday with the class, giving one reason why it is their favorite. Explain that all cultures/countries celebrate holidays and that in Japan these holidays are called *matsuri*. This lesson is about Japanese *matsuri*, how they are celebrated, and what they have in common with holidays in the United States.

B. Divide the students into four groups and assign each group one of the four seasons. Each group will become the "experts" on a Japanese and an United States matsuri celebrated during their particular season.

C. Ask each group to agree upon a *matsuri* found in the United States that is celebrated during their assigned season. (Suggestions might include winter – New Year's Day; spring – Memorial Day; summer – The Fourth of July; autumn – Thanksgiving; however, any holiday that falls within the season will work.)

D. Have each group use its prior knowledge to answer the following questions on the concept map (Appendix 1). Students can first complete a personal concept map and transfer answers to a chart paper concept map, or the students can verbally answer the question and transfer answers to the chart paper map.

1) What special foods do you associate with this *matsuri?*

2) What special traditions do you associate with this *matsuri?*

3) What special clothing do you wear for this *matsuri?*

4) What special decorations do you use for this *matsuri?*

5) What special place(s) do you visit during this *matsuri?*

6) What special activity do you do in school for this *matsuri?*

E. Conduct a whole class discussion where the expert groups share their chart paper concept maps. Ask each group, and then the class as a whole to comment on how the *matsuri* are used to hold the culture of the United States together.

F. Ask each group to agree upon a *matsuri* (See Appendix 3) found in Japan that is celebrated during their assigned season. (Suggestions might be winter – *O-Shogatsu;* spring – *Kodomo-no-hi;* summer – *O-Bon;* autumn – *Shichi-Go-San;* however, any holiday that falls within the season will work if information is readily available)

G. Have each group research its selected *matsuri* and answer the following questions on the concept map. Students can first complete a personal concept map and transfer answers to a chart paper concept map, or the students can verbally answer the question and transfer answers to the chart paper concept map.

   1) What special foods do the Japanese associate with this *matsuri?*

   2) What special traditions do the Japanese associate with this *matsuri?*

   3) What special clothing do the Japanese wear for this *matsuri?*

   4) What special decorations do the Japanese use for this *matsuri?*

   5) What special place(s) do the Japanese visit during this *matsuri?*

   6) What special activity do the Japanese do in school during this *matsuri?*

H. Conduct a whole class discussion where the expert groups share their chart paper concept maps. Ask each group, and then the class as a whole to comment on how the *matsuri* are used to hold together the Japanese culture.

I. Put the chart paper concept maps up and ask the students to find ways in which *matsuri* in both countries are similar? are different? These differences can be noted verbally, on the board, or in the students' notebooks.

J. Give three blank calendars (Appendix 2) to each group. Ask each group to compile a class calendar for *matsuri* of both countries. The winter group will compile for the months of December, January, February; spring for the months of March, April, May; summer for the months of June, July, August; and autumn for the months of September, October, November. Students will print the names of the Japanese *matsuri* in red, and the names of the United States *matsuri* in blue.

K. Each seasonal group will study its calendars and report back to the class on such questions as: Which country has more *matsuri?*, Which *matsuri* fall on the same day, month, season?, etc.

ASSESSMENT

Students' mapping exercises and seasonal calendars will be assessed as the class progresses.

Students will be asked to use the completed concept maps and class calendar to answer the following question in written form: While Japan and the United States are very different cultures, they both celebrate many *matsuri* throughout the year. Why is it important that these *matsuri* are celebrated, and what kinds of *matsuri* do these countries have in common?

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Children's birthdays are celebrated by both cultures. In Japan a gift of money is sometimes given, although presents and cards are increasingly popular. (Money is given to children on New Year's Day.) The money is enclosed in a decorative envelope, but the inside is usually plain. There are many different kinds of gift envelopes, with some featuring a small *origami* figure and cords tied around in a knot. In the United States the envelope is very plain and a decorative card is enclosed. If a money gift is given, it is enclosed with the card. Ask the students to produce Japanese and United States birthday cards featuring these differences. Play money can be used for the inside.

Religious themes and customs are a large part of many *matsuri* found in both countries. Ask the students to compile calendars of sacred and secular *matsuri* found in both countries in order to see the difference. The students can personalize this calendar by putting down the religious *matsuri* that they celebrate.

Both countries have national *matsuri* in addition to *matsuri* celebrated on a local basis. Ask the students to compile a calendar that just lists national *matsuri* for both countries.

Select one Japanese *matsuri.* Have the students create a handicraft project connected with that *matsuri.* Example : *Tanabata* – have students write a wish on a decorative piece of paper and hang these wishes on a branch or from a bamboo pole.

TEACHER RESOURCE LIST

Araki, Nancy K. and Jane M. Horii. *Matsuri: Festival.* Torrance, CA: Heian Publishing Co., 1993.

Davis, Malcolm B. *Japan.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1994.

De Mente, Boye Lafayette. *Japan Made Easy.* Lincolnwood, IL: Passport Books, 1992.

Ekiguchi, Kunio and Ruth S. McCreery. *Japanese Crafts and Customs.* Tokyo: Kodansha International, 1992.

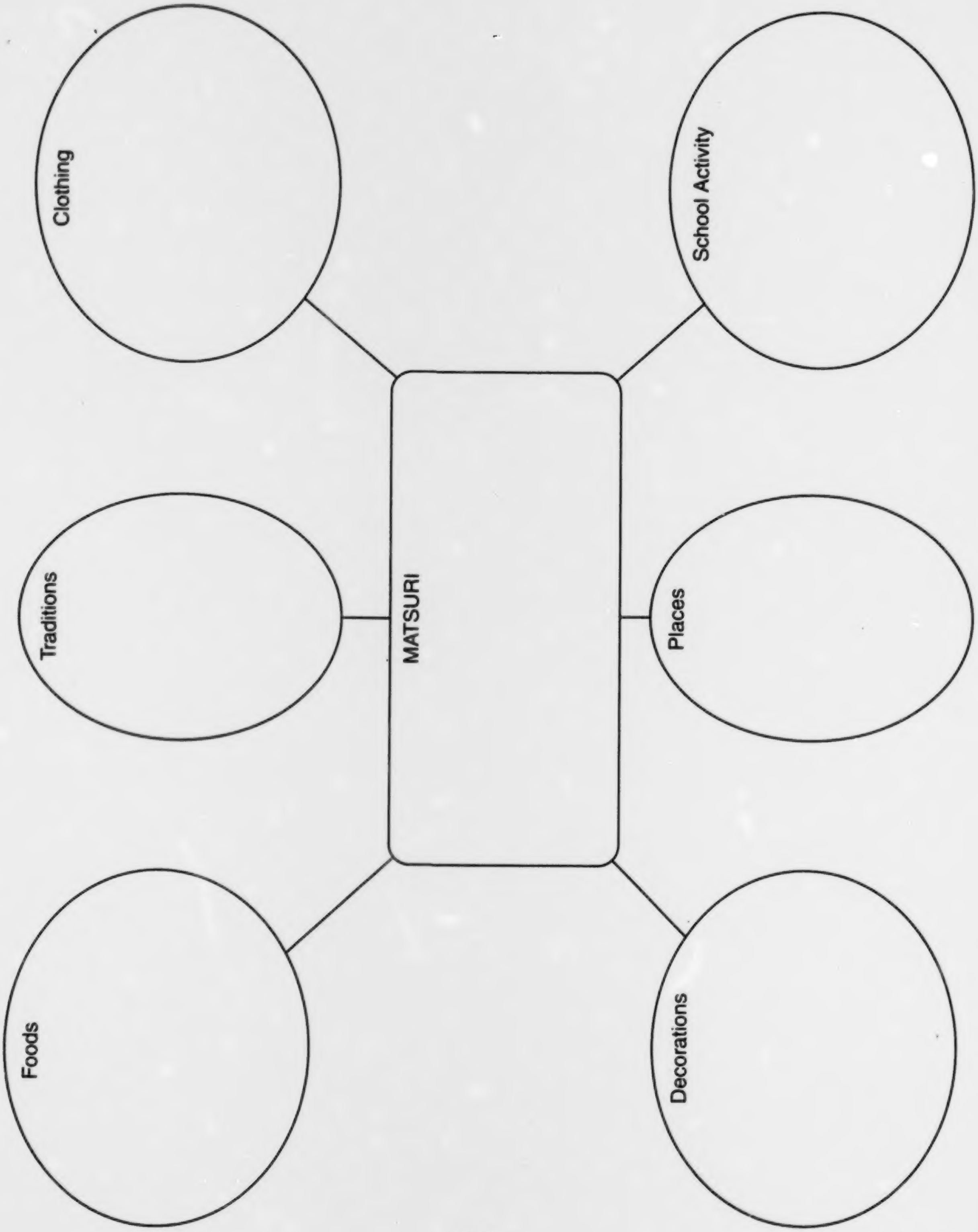
Festivals of Japan. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, 1991.

The Japan of Today. Tokyo: The International Society for Educational Information, 1993.

Japanese Family and Culture. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, 1994.

Varley, H. Paul. *Japanese Culture.* Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press, 1984.

APPENDIX 1


Clothing
School Activity
Traditions
MATSURI
Places
Foods
Decorations

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday

APPENDIX 3

MATSURI CELEBRATED IN JAPAN

(N) = a Japanese National Holiday

Date	Matsuri	Japanese Name
January 1 (N)	New Year's Day	*O-Shogatsu* (Often lasts three days and includes exchange of postcards, ceremonies to eliminate past bad fortune and ensure future good fortune, and gifts of money for children.)
January 15 (N)	Coming-of-Age Day	*Seijin-no-hi* (A day kept for the encouragement and awareness of the young who reach adulthood, 20 years of age.)
February 3	Last Day of Winter	*Setsubun* (This traditional ceremony has become associated with the rites of purification and exorcism of demons needed to prepare for the coming year and spring planting.)
February 11 (N)	National Foundation Day	*Kenkoku Kinenbi* (A holiday in memory of the founding of Japan – the legendary enthronement of Japan's first emperor, Jimmu.)
February 14*	Valentine's Day	*Barentain Dei*
March 3	Girl's Festival	*Hina matsuri* (A beautiful display of dolls is a main feature of this festival.)
March 14*	White Day	*Howaito Dei*
March 21 (N)	Vernal Equinox	*Shunbun-no-hi* (A day to appreciate the natural environment and, in accordance with Buddhism, a time to visit family graves and have family reunions.)
April 8	Flower Festival	*Hana matsuri* (This is the name for several different annual festivals, one being the birth of Buddha, in which flowers are used.)
April 29 (N)	The Greenery Day	*Midori-no-hi* (A day to respect and become familiar with nature; this is the former Emperor's birthday.)
May 3 (N)	Constitution Day	*Kenpo Kinenbi* (A holiday in memory of the day the Constitution of Japan went into effect.)
May 5 (N)	Children's Day	*Kodomo-no-hi* or *Tango-no-sekku* (A day to value the character of children, to wish for their happiness and to appreciate mothers.)
July 7	Star Festival	*Tanabata* (The story of two lovers separated by the Milky Way is the basis for this picturesque and romantic festival.)
July 20 (N)	Sea Memorial Day	*Umi-no-Kinenbi* (Beginning in 1996, a holiday in appreciation of the sea, which is so important to Japan.)
Mid-August	All Souls Day	*O-Bon* (This Buddhist celebration is related to the ancient belief that ancestors return to their birth homes at this time and at the close of the year.)
Mid-September	Moon Viewing	*Tsukimi* (Today, this moon-viewing ritual, which originated with farmers' religious observances for a good harvest, features offerings and prayers so that wishes can come true.)
September 15 (N)	Respect for the Aged Day	*Keiro-no-hi* (A day to respect the elderly and to celebrate their lives.)
September 23 (N)	Autumnal Equinox	*Shubun-no-hi* (A day to respect ancestors and to remember those who have passed away.)
October 10 (N)	Health – Sports Day	*Taiiku-no-hi* (A day to promote physical and mental health.)
November 3 (N)	Culture Day	*Bunka-no-hi* (A day in honor of freedom, peace, and the continuance of culture; the Constitution of Japan was promulgated on this day in 1946.)
November 15	Seven-Five-Three Festival	*Shichi-Go-San* (Parents take 3-year-old children of either sex, 5-year-old boys and 7-year-old girls to the local shrine where spirits are thanked for their health and prayers are offered for the future.)
November 23 (N)	Labor Thanksgiving Day	*Kinro Kansha-no-hi* (The celebration of labor and productivity; a day to thank one another.)
December 23 (N)	The Emperor's Birthday	*Tenno Tanjobi* (The present Emperor Akihito's birthday.)
December 25*	Christmas	*Kurisumasu*
December 31	New Year's Eve	*O-misoka* (Typically, bells at temples in Japan are rung 108 times.)

* These are holidays that are becoming popular with the Japanese people. On Valentine's Day the women give gifts (often chocolate) to men, and on White Day, men give gifts of sweets (sometimes white chocolate) or other presents to women. Christmas is mostly celebrated as a secular holiday with a special dinner including a Christmas cake.

TOPIC

Global Reflections: Using Talents Unlimited in Exploring Today's Japan

by Suzanne C. Zaremba,
J.B. Fisher Model Elementary School, Richmond, Virginia

NCSS STANDARDS - THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  a. Explore and describe similarities and differences in the ways groups, societies, and cultures address similar human needs and concerns.
  d. Compare ways in which people from different cultures think about and deal with their physical environment and social conditions.

III. People, Places, and Environment
  h. Examine the interaction of human beings and their physical environment, the use of land, building of cities, and ecosystem changes in selected locales and regions.
  j. Observe and speculate about social and economic effects of environmental changes and crises resulting from phenomena such as floods, storms, and drought.
  k. Consider existing uses and propose and evaluate alternate uses of resources and land in home, school, community, the region, and beyond.

INTRODUCTION - PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Our world of high technology and constant inventions is making this a smaller place in which to live. Japan is unquestionably a leader in the newest technologies. Globally, each day we become linked a little closer to what was once a remote section of our world. The United States tends to be a multi-cultural nation, yet many of us know very little about these many cultures, their similarities, and their differences. The study of Japan, a more homogenous nation, could be a good tool to enhance the awareness and understanding of other cultures. While exploring issues of daily life in Japanese society using the creative higher level thinking processes, students will learn to appreciate the way others deal with similar human needs and concerns. Instead of mastering facts, students will gain insight into the people and their environment. Developing understanding of other cultures will enhance the student's preparation to live in a more global society linking us all closer together.

Talents Unlimited is an instructional approach designed to help teachers recognize and nurture the multiple talents of all children. The Talents Unlimited model is based on the work of Dr. Galyin Taylor. This approach to the teaching-learning process is called the Multiple Talent approach. Dr. Taylor states that nearly all students are talented; that is, can be above average in at least one of the many important, intellectual skills we can now measure. In addition to stressing academics, i.e., developing and expanding a knowledge base, the program stresses development of the following skills:

1. Productive Thinking – to generate many, varied and unusual ideas or solutions and add to them;
2. Communication – to use and interpret both verbal and nonverbal forms of communication;
3. Forecasting – to make a variety of predictions about possible cause and effects;
4. Planning – to design a means for implementing an idea by describing the tasks, identifying resources, outlining the sequence of steps and pinpointing possible problems;
5. Decision-Making – to outline choices, weigh alternatives, make judgments and justify decisions.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- explore the similarities and differences in the cultures of Japan and their own country.
- describe ways people of Japan and the U.S. deal with their physical, environmental and social conditions.
- locate the Japanese islands and their surrounding environs on a map.
- explain the different landforms in Japan.
- identify Japan's natural resources, major crises, products, and industries and determine their roles in the social and economic systems of Japan.

Attitude – Students will:

- realize that people are more alike than different because of basic needs.
- understand the differences in our cultures that cause people to live and think as they do.
- recognize that every culture changes continually, but that the rate of change may be slow or rapid.
- associate forms of recreation and occupation with geographical features.
- see more clearly the relationships between a nation's culture and its people and their environment.

Skills – Students will:

- interview community people who have lived in Japan and share their findings with the class.
- research/ compare and contrast the following in Japan and the United States:
  1. culture
  2. economy
  3. view of other world communities
  4. roles of men and women
  5. education and family values
  6. land mass vs population
  7. land mass vs trade and industry

8. transportation
9. weather/natural disasters
10. recycling and the environment
11. natural resources
12. urban/rural living

(use critical thinking processes to develop creative solutions to daily living problem – solving issues.)

TIME ALLOTMENT

5 – 45 minute sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- interviews from community resource people
- paper charts and pens
- resource center for research
- Talents Unlimited situation cards (Appendix 1).

PROCEDURE

Prior to the activity, students will have viewed three videos and slides on different aspects of Japan. By this time, they will also have had the opportunity to interview and talk with people who have lived in Japan.

A. 1st Session:
  1. Introduce the lesson by reading the book, *A To Zen: A Book of Japanese Culture* by Ruth Wells and Yoshi Wells.
  2. Divide students into two groups. Play a verbal game for points. Each question will be on the dos and don'ts of situations using the proper etiquette in Japanese culture. The winners of this game will get to pick their favorite activity for free time.
  3. Next divide the class into five cooperative learning groups.
  4. Give each group two topics (see list above) to research and to compare and contrast by charts or lists. Use rest of the session for groups to organize their work.

B. 2nd Session
  1. Use entire session to complete the task.

C. 3rd Session
  1. Reconvene as a total class to share information researched and charted.

D. 4th Session
  1. Go back to the same cooperative groups. Give students a pack of situation cards. Each group will have 30 minutes to find possible solutions.
  2. Reconvene as a total class for 15 minutes to share solutions.

E. An extra class session may need to be used depending on the time needed for working sessions.

ASSESSMENT

In critical thinking situations there are no right or wrong answers. Most of the assessment should be subjective. For the group assessment, a rubric is useful for both peers and the teacher to more fairly judge the groups efforts.

An individual assessment will be in writing, with students answering the open ended question:

> What did you learn from this activity and why?

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Higher level thinking skills give students the chance to look at situations in many different ways and come up with solutions to problem solving in many varied and unusual ways. To extend and enrich this activity, students will use their productive thinking skills to find many varied daily living issues with which to make their own situation cards. These cards will be shared with other classes to spread an awareness of the Japanese culture and to encourage interest in the study of Japan as a global neighbor and partner.

One other way these cards could be used is to set up a bulletin board in the hallway. Each week one situation and one of the five Talents Unlimited skills (see the Introduction) could be the focus topic. All of the students in the school could be encouraged to write their answers on the blank space provided as part of the display.

TEACHER RESOURCE LIST

Videos

JAPAN 1: The Electronic Tribe, Central Independent Television, 1987.

JAPAN 2: The Sword and the Chrysanthemum, Central Independent Television, 1987.

JAPAN 3: The Legacy of the Shogun, Central Independent Television, 1987

Books

Japanese Family and Culture. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, Inc., 1994.

A Look Into Japan. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, Inc., 1994.

Living Japanese Style. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, Inc., 1994.

Shelley, Rex. *Culture Shock! JAPAN*. Portland, OR: Graphic Arts Publishing Co., 1993.

The Japan of Today. Tokyo: International Society for Educational Information, 1993.

Today's Japan. Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, Inc., 1994.

Views of Japan. Tokyo: Urban Connections Inc., 1995.

Wells, Ruth and Yoshi. *A to Zen: A Book of Japanese Culture*. Saxonville, MA: Picture Book Studios, 1992.

Wojtan, Linda S. *Resources For Teaching About Japan*. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, The National Clearinghouse for United States-Japan Studies, Indiana University, 1993.

APPENDIX 1
SITUATION CARDS

Below are examples of Situation Cards developed for use in critical thinking through Talents Unlimited.

Examples:

Situation Card

Productive Thinking

Because Japan's land mass is so small compared to the number of people, problems of trash and pollution would seem a major concern. Now that you live in Japan, and can see how they handle recycling, list many varied and unusual ideas to improve the process.

Situation Card

Communication

You have lived in your Japanese home for a month. You need to write a letter to your grandmother. Think of and list many varied and unusual words to describe your new home. Use these descriptive words in your letter to help your grandmother visualize your home and make your letter more interesting.

Situation Card

Planning

You have just enrolled in a Japanese school. The Japanese people view education differently from what you were used to in the U.S.A.. Plan how you will manage your time to function successfully within the Japanese viewpoint of education.

Situation Card

Decision Making

Your family is moving to Japan. Because of limited space in your housing, you may not take all of your toys.

Which toys will you take and which will you discard?

Why did you make these choices?

Situation Card

Forecasting

Rice is the staple food of your meals in Japan. A blight has wiped out Japan's supply of rice grown by their farmers.

Predict what might happen if this blight were to occur.

TOPIC

Housing – Living with Nature

by Rita Geiger
Norman Public Schools, Norman, Oklahoma

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  d. Compare ways in which people from different cultures think about and deal with their physical environment and social conditions.

III. People, Places, and Environments
  g. Describe how people create places that reflect ideas, personality, culture, and wants and needs as they design homes, playgrounds, classrooms, and the like.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

The emphasis on harmony with one's natural environment is found in many aspects of Japanese life. Traditional architecture in Japan is designed with an openness to the outdoors. This same openness is reflected inside a traditional Japanese home where there is very little furniture, and simplicity is the norm. During this lesson students will learn about this connection between nature and Japanese houses by studying traditional Japanese houses. Students will learn how the Japanese design houses which reflect their ideas about nature and culture. They will also learn that most Japanese people live in apartments or condominiums, and do not live in traditional houses.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- identify different types of housing available in Japan.
- explain what materials are used in a traditional Japanese house.
- describe the inside of a traditional Japanese house.
- recognize the different types of housing available in Japan and compare the types to those in the United States.

Attitude – Students will:

- recognize the influence of nature in the life of the Japanese.
- describe how nature is reflected in the design of traditional Japanese houses.
- discover that many Japanese people bring nature into apartments and condominiums by having a *tokonoma* (nook) with a hanging scroll and flower arrangement.

Skills – Students will:

- construct a model of a traditional Japanese house.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 to 3 class sessions, excluding time for preparing the model.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- Appendix 1
- photos, slides, magazines, and/or books that show traditional Japanese houses
- information about housing in Japan (see Teacher Resource List for suggestions.)

PROCEDURE

A. Assign students to small groups and distribute photographs or magazine pictures or books with photographs that show traditional Japanese houses, Western-style houses, apartment buildings, condominiums, etc. As an alternative, show the students slides of different types of housing.

B. Ask each group to list ways the housing types are alike and different. Ask the group members to also list the kinds of materials they think were used to build each type of housing.

C. Have each group share its findings with the rest of the class. Prepare a class chart to show the similarities and differences each group discovered. Also, list on the chart the different materials used in the construction of the housing.

D. Conduct a whole class discussion of what the chart shows regarding the different types of housing and make a list together of the characteristics of a traditional Japanese house.

E. Lead the class in a discussion of Japanese ideas about nature and the importance of being in harmony with nature. (See Discussion Notes.) Show the students a picture or slide of the interior of a traditional Japanese house and point out how the house opens up to the garden. Ask the students to examine the list of characteristics of a traditional Japanese house and explain which characteristics show a connection with nature. Show the students a picture of a *tokonoma* (nook) which contains a hanging scroll and flower arrangement. Explain how many Japanese bring nature into their apartments and condominiums by having a flower arrangement in a *tokonoma* in one room.

F. Show students the diagram of a traditional Japanese house (See Appendix 1). Ask children to design a traditional Japanese house and make a model of their house. Possible materials could include popsicle sticks to represent bamboo and thin tracing paper to represent the paper used in the panes of the sliding doors.

G. Have the students write an essay or poem about the importance of nature in Japanese architecture or life.

ASSESSMENT

A. Products will be evaluated to assess the understanding of the concepts of nature and its connection to housing, using such criteria as how students utilized natural materials in the construction, and the openness of their designs.

B. Given a set of photographs (or slides, magazine pictures, etc.) students are asked to identify different types of houses as to whether or not they would be considered traditional Japanese or Western-style houses.

C. Children are asked to prepare an essay or poem that describes how the Japanese create living spaces that reflect nature.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Have students search children's literature for stories about Japanese families to see if the stories describe the housing in which the family lives. Children could explain the book(s) and describe how the housing is alike or different from the model houses they built.

TEACHER RESOURCE LIST

Modern Japan: An Idea Book for K-12 Teachers. Bloomington, IN: National Clearinghouse for United States – Japan Studies, 1992; p. 81-84. (Publications Manager, Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 2805 East 10th Street, Suite 120, Bloomington, IN 47408-2698; Tel. (800) 266 3815.)

Stepping Stones, Teaching about Japan in Elementary Grades, Selected Lessons from the "Japan Alumni". U.S. – Japan Education Group; p. 13-17. Publication is available through ERIC (800 266-3815).

The Japan of Today. Tokyo: The International Society for Educational Information, Inc. 1993. (The International Society for Educational Information, Inc., Royal Wakaba 1-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan; Tel. (03) 3358-1138; Fax (03) 3359-7188.) This publication is available free of charge from many Consulate General of Japan offices.

Understanding Japan, A Teachers' and Textbook Writers' Handbook on Japan. No. 49. Tokyo: The International Society for Educational Information, Inc., 1989. (See above.)

Views of Japan. Vol. 1, March 1995. Tokyo: Urban Connections, Inc., 1995; p. 18-19. (Urban Connections, Inc., Tokyo Tatemono Shibuya Building, 8F, 9-9 Shibuya 3-chome, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150, Japan; Tel. 81-3-5467-4721; Fax 81-3-5467-4722;
E-mail jp000033@interranp.com).

CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

Cobb, Vicki. *This Place Is Crowded: Japan.* New York: Walker Publishing Company, 1992.

Friedman, Ina. *How My Parents Learned to Eat.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1984.

Nomura, Takaaki. *Grandpa's Town.* Brooklyn, NY: Kane/Miller, 1991.

Say, Allen. *Grandfather's Journey.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1993.

Takeshita, Fumiko. *The Park Bench.* Brooklyn, NY: Kane/Miller, 1988.

Wells, Ruth and Yoshi. *A to Zen: A Book of Japanese Culture.* Saxonville, MA: Picture Book Studio, 1992.

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Greene, Carol. *Japan.* Chicago: Children's Press, 1983.

Tames, Richard. *Journey through Japan.* Mahwah, NJ: Troll Associates, 1991.

Tames, Richard. *Passport to Japan.* London: Franklin Watts, 1988.

DISCUSSION NOTES

Traditional Japanese homes have a peaceful, simple style which is reflective of Japanese ideas about harmony with one's natural environment. Homes are designed with an openness to the outside. This openness is seen inside a traditional Japanese house where there is little furniture, and simplicity is the norm. Houses are made of wood and paper and often have tile roofs. Sometimes roofs are made of plant materials such as reed, wheat straw or bamboo. The houses spread out sideways rather than upwards. Houses are not painted inside or out in order for the natural grain of the wood to be seen and appreciated.

The walls are thin and the inside spaces are divided by *fusuma* (wood framed, paper sliding doors) and *shoji* (sliding screens with translucent paper panes) which make it possible to rearrange rooms in the house. In traditional Japanese homes, the *genkan* (entrance), corridors and kitchen have wooden floors, while the floors of the other rooms are covered by *tatami* (finely woven straw or rush mats). Family members and visitors in a Japanese home remove their shoes in the *genkan* and put on slippers. When they enter a *tatami* room, they remove their slippers and leave them in the corridor.

Sometimes houses open into small gardens that are an extension of the home into nature. Even if they do not have space for a garden, most Japanese bring nature into their homes and even apartments and condominiums by having a *tokonoma* (nook or alcove). A long picture-scroll hangs on the back wall of the *tokonoma*. Below is a tall, slender vase which holds a lovely arrangement of flowers. Flower arrangement is an art and it is one of the ways in which Japanese express their love for the beauty of nature. The flower arrangements are simple and are made to look as though the few blossoms and twigs are really growing.

Land is scarce in Japan, especially in cities, and houses are often expensive and fairly small. One room often has to be used for several different functions and therefore contains only a few pieces of furniture. At night, a room may be used for sleeping on a *futon*, a light folding mattress. In the morning, the *futon* is put away in a cupboard or closet and a small table and cushions are used for dining. Later, the same room can be a sitting room used for reading or watching television.

Today, traditional Japanese homes are rare. Newer homes have at least one room covered with carpet and furnished with Western-style furniture. Some homes are almost completely Western-style with only one *tatami* room. The *tatami* room is usually where the *tokonoma* is located in this style home. Some modern homes do not have a *tokonoma* or *tatami* room. Nearly every Japanese home has a telephone and a washing machine, and virtually all homes have at least a telephone, washing machine and one television set. Many children play computer games on the family computer or watch video tapes on the family's television set.

Japanese families in cities often live in apartment buildings called "mansions." These families are not millionaires; "mansions" in Japan are apartment buildings made of concrete. They are much better but more expensive than apartment buildings made of wood. Other families live in individual homes. Some of these houses are traditional Japanese houses and some are houses that are similar to houses in North America, but much smaller.

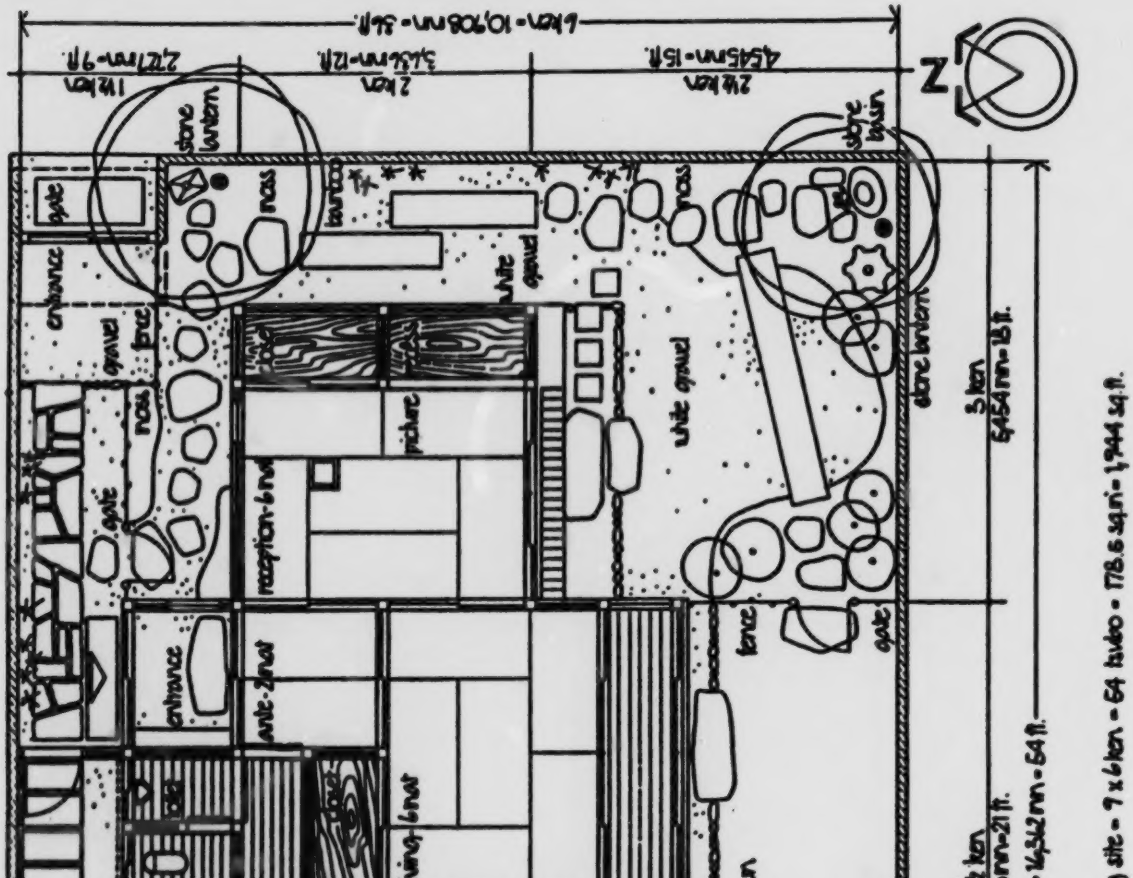
The families who live in apartments often have green and flowering plants on a balcony outside their living room. Some even have small box gardens where they grow vegetables. Sliding doors allow access to the balcony and are often kept open to let breezes pass through the apartment.

Ready-built houses that look alike have become a common sight. There is very little space between these homes but most have plants on a porch or in a small backyard. These homes are usually two or three stories high.

One should always remember that there are as many different styles of houses in Japan as there are in the U.S. Students should also realize that even traditional Japanese houses are not all exactly the same but reflect the ideas and personalities of the families living in them.

APPENDIX 1

RESIDENCE AND GARDEN FOR A FAMILY OF 5 OR 6 PERSONS



6 ken = 10,908 mm = 36 ft.
1½ ken 2,727 mm - 9 ft.
2 ken 3,636 mm - 12 ft.
2½ ken 4,545 mm - 15 ft.
stone lantern
stone basin
gate
entrance
gravel
fence
moss
white gravel
stone lantern
reception-6 mat
picture
closet
ante-2 mat
entrance
living-6 mat
eating-4½ mat
living (children)-8 mat
closet
kitchen
bath
veranda
shutters
fence
gate
lawn
rocks
moss
½ ken 3 shaku 910 mm 3 feet
3 ken 5,454 mm - 18 ft.
3½ ken 6,363 mm - 21 ft.
2½ ken 4,545 mm - 15 ft.
9 ken - 16,362 mm - 54 ft.
design for residence of 22.5 tsubo - 75.2 sq.m. - 809.4 sq.ft., building site - 9 x 6 ken - 54 tsubo - 178.6 sq.m. - 1,944 sq.ft.

From Heinrich Engel, *The Japanese House*, Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1964, p. 259. Reproduced by permission of Charles E. Tuttle Co., Inc. of Tokyo, Japan.

Introduction to Junior High/Middle School Lessons

Middle school students are eager learners. They long to find answers about who they are, what they believe, and where they fit into the larger world. While middle school students may vary greatly in physical and intellectual development, the 1991 National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Social Studies in the Middle School identified four basic themes which characterize these students: concern with self; concern for right and wrong; concern for others; and concern for the world. In light of these characteristics, the Task Force recommended that one or more of the themes be incorporated into each instructional unit or series of lessons. The six lessons in this section, ranging from activities on marketing techniques to Japanese religion, and to trade negotiations, all incorporate the recommended Task Force themes. Even though these topics are diverse, all the lessons require students to actively participate, create, perform, and think.

Martha Jo Sheppard's lesson "We Make It, You Take It," based on NCSS Standard VII – Production, Distribution, and Consumption, begins by asking students to find two advertisements which appeal to them. Ms. Sheppard builds on students' interest to engage them in speculation on the steps a company must take to sell a product. Students are then led through cost comparisons, advertisement comparisons, and role playing exercises, in order to end with a challenging group project.

Another lesson focusing on Standard VII engages students in trade negotiations through an exciting role play activity. Andrew Gambier takes students through a series of activities to learn basic economic concepts such as supply and demand, tariff, and protectionism. To assist student negotiators, Mr. Gambier provides helpful background information which outlines essential facts about the current status of automobile trade between the United States and Japan.

Dorothy Cost takes a broad look at Japanese culture with "Integrating the Seven Intelligences through Learning Centers," a lesson based on Standard I – Culture. Ms. Cost generates a wide variety of activities consistent with Howard Gardner's theory of seven intelligences, and identifies essential resources for organizing participatory lessons. The strength of her lesson is its variety and the options given to middle school teachers for meeting diverse student abilities and interests.

Japanese religious practice is the topic of Karin Kopciak's lesson in the interaction between Buddhism and Shinto. Ms. Kopciak leads students through a series of activities designed to examine not only how Buddhism and Shinto are practiced in public and private life, but also to explore the differences between religion and spirituality. Ms. Kopciak's lesson contains a useful one page summary, "Religion in Japan." She also gives helpful information on the characteristics of home shrines called *butsudan* and *kamidana*. Student performance expectations from Standard I – Culture, Standard III – People, Places and Events, and Standard IV – Individual Development and Identity guide the activities of the lesson.

Karen Schill writes her lesson to meet student performance expectations from Standard I – Culture, Standard VI – Power, Authority, and Governance and Standard V – Individuals, Groups, and Institutions. Ms. Schill's lesson, "Building a Safer Society: At What Costs?," includes background notes, comparative crime statistics, and the "Rights and Duties of the People" from the Japanese Constitution of 1947. This wealth of information ultimately enables students to participate in a crime commission project which requires them to decide if features of Japanese society could be used in American society to improve our crime statistics.

The sixth lesson by Frederick Ginocchio, based on Standards II – Time, Continuity, and Change, and I – Culture, is entitled "Perspectives on Hiroshima and Nagasaki: How History Makes Its Mark on a People." The lesson includes two comparative "fact sheets" from the Peace Memorial Museum on the damage to Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The core of the lesson, however, has students reading views on the dropping of the atomic bomb from a Japanese newspaper editor from Hiroshima and an American marine veteran, who survived Iwo Jima. Students are asked to appreciate and understand the contrasting historical perspectives and then create a product which illustrates their empathy and understanding of each.

The middle school lessons within this section are fine examples of how lessons can be organized around the new NCSS Standards, and at the same time be provocative, "hands on," varied, and fun. In addition to the activities themselves, each lesson contains helpful enrichment suggestions, and is packed with current, firsthand information. Please enjoy the adventure as you take students on a trip through Japan!

Frederick L. Ginocchio
Junior High/ Middle School Team Leader

TOPIC

We Make It – You Take It

by Martha Jo Sheppard
Sierra Vista Middle School, Sierra Vista, Arizona

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

VII. Production, Distribution and Consumption

- a. Give and explain examples of ways that economic systems structure choices about how goods and services are to be produced and distributed.
- g. Differentiate among various forms of exchange and money.

INTRODUCTION

This is a comparison study of advertising, product costs, and marketing techniques used in Japan and the U.S. This lesson has been designed with an interdisciplinary approach, especially using math skills.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- demonstrate an understanding of terms directly related to advertising and marketing techniques, and the exchange rates between two or more foreign currencies.
- demonstrate an understanding of the need to evaluate the potential market, cost of production and distribution, cultural habits of the consumers, and marketing techniques before production and distribution of new products.

Attitude – Students will:

- appreciate change as a common feature of life in all cultures.
- willingly consider opinions and interpretations different from their own.

Skills – Students will:

- identify the intended audiences and messages of advertisements, commercials, and marketing techniques.
- convey thoughts and information in an oral presentation.
- compare two or more advertisements and draw conclusions about the results using a decision-making process.
- contribute to and work in a group setting.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3-5 class sessions, with additional sessions for enrichment activities.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- magazines, newspapers, examples of advertisements or commercials
- overhead transparency of current exchange rates
- Advertisement Comparison (Appendix 1)
- Comparative Costs (Appendix 2)
- America's Import Market (Appendix 3)
- Group Project Worksheet (Appendix 4).

PROCEDURE

A. Using magazines, newspapers, commercials, etc. ask the students to find two ads which are most appealing to them and two that are not. Ask the students to list what they liked and disliked about the four advertisements they selected. Choose a few students to share their ads and list of likes and dislikes with the class.

B. Introduce the following terms to the class: market, classified ad, commercials, consumer, competition, target audience, purchase price.

C. Referring to the ads chosen by the students in procedure A:

- ask the students to identify the marketing technique used.
- ask which age or type of audience was targeted in the advertisement or commercial.
- ask if the ad indicates the country in which this product was produced.

D. Discuss some of the steps foreign countries must follow before they can introduce their products into the U.S. market, for example:

- research the need and usefulness of the product for people in the U.S.
- make sure the product meets all the safety regulations and other specifications set by the U.S. government
- find a U.S. store or company willing to distribute the product
- design a marketing strategy for the product being sold in the U.S.

E. Have the students complete the worksheet Advertisement Comparison – Appendix 1. Note: in debriefing the work that students have completed on Appendix 1, it is important to explain that one of the reasons for the multilingual approach in the Japanese ad is that this item is targeted for foreign tourists. (Japanese does not appear on the ad; "Made in Japan" is used to attract foreigners.)

F. Brainstorm:

- "You have just invented an electrical appliance that will slice meat, fish, vegetables and other foods into thin strips within a matter of seconds. What would you have to consider before marketing your product to people in the U.S.?"
- "If you were a U.S. manufacturer wanting to introduce the same product to the people of Japan, what things would you have to consider before setting the purchase price of that product?"
- "Would the purchase price you set for your product in Japan be more or less than the purchase price for the same product to be sold in the U.S. market? Give reasons to support your answer."

G. Share with students an overhead transparency of current exchange rates for the U.S. dollar. Ask students how many Japanese *yen* they could buy with one U.S. dollar. How many Japanese *yen* could $20 U.S. purchase? Have students complete the worksheet Comparative Costs – Appendix 2 and debrief their work.

H. Field trip or individual project: visit a local store(s) and identify five products made in Japan. As a challenge, see which student can find products from the greatest number of different countries. All students should complete the worksheet America's Import Market – Appendix 3.

I. Class bulletin board project: using the data from the worksheet America's Import Market, have the class prepare a visual display of the data.

ASSESSMENT

Completion of a group project. See Group Project Worksheet – Appendix 4.

A. Form a U.S. company. Choose a name for your company and choose a product that you would like to market, for example a toy, jeans or clothing, etc.

B. Design and create the ways you would market your product to each of the following target audiences:

- children or teens
- senior citizens over 65 years of age
- Japanese people (select the age group you would target).

C. Identify the marketing technique, for example commercials, packaging, magazine or newspaper advertisement, etc. you would use in promoting your product. Design and/or create your choice.

D. Clearly indicate the product's name and purchase price (use U.S. dollars for items for the U.S. market and *yen* for items to be marketed to a Japanese age group.

E. Give an oral presentation of your finished project to the class. Your report should include at least three major points or advantages of your product that your marketing technique is emphasizing. Describe how your approach to the people of Japan differs from that used to target groups in the U.S. Each member of the group must have an equal part during the oral presentation.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Guest Speaker: Invite a salesperson from a Japanese auto dealership to speak to the class about the training he/she received from the Japanese auto maker; ask the speaker to give examples of how they try to convince U.S. consumers to purchase a Japanese auto instead of a U.S. auto; also ask the speaker to comment on how the fluctuation of the exchange rate for the U.S. dollar impacts the pricing and sales of their product, etc.

B. If you can obtain magazines or ads written in Japanese, have students compare the advertisements with U.S. advertisements of similar products.

C. Using the product chosen for the group assessment project, ask the students to explain how the marketing techniques might be changed if the product chosen was being marketed in a less prosperous country. Who would be their target audience? Would the purchase price be changed?

D. Have students research and read articles about:

- recent U.S.-Japan trade agreements
- the U.S.-Japan trade balance/imbalance in 1950 vs. the current year.

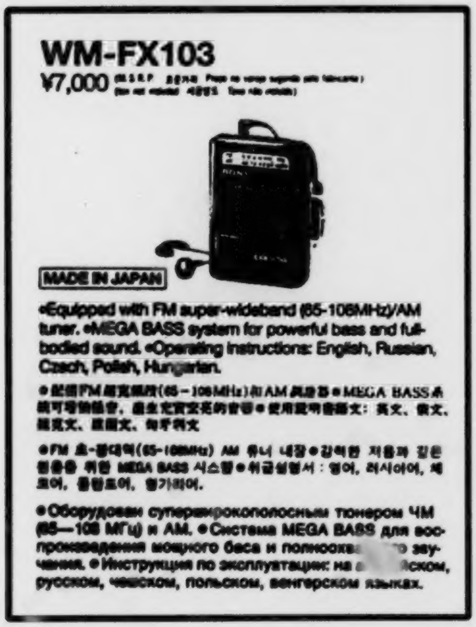
E. Students can write letters to U.S. companies selling products in the Japanese market and Japanese companies selling in the U.S. market, asking for information on marketing techniques and/or materials they use.

Name ______________________

Period__________ Date ___________

ADVERTISEMENT COMPARISON

Sony Walkman (Japan)



WM-FX103

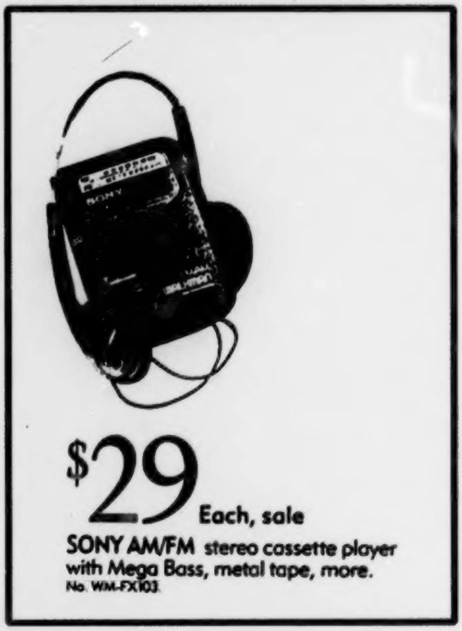
¥7,000

MADE IN JAPAN

•Equipped with FM super-wideband (65-108MHz)/AM tuner. •MEGA BASS system for powerful bass and full-bodied sound. •Operating Instructions: English, Russian, Czech, Polish, Hungarian.

•Оборудован суперширокополосным тюнером ЧМ (65—108 МГц) и АМ. •Система MEGA BASS для воспроизведения мощного баса и полноо[illegible]о звучания. •Инструкция по эксплуатации: на а[illegible]йском, русском, чешском, польском, венгерском языках.

Sony Walkman (USA)



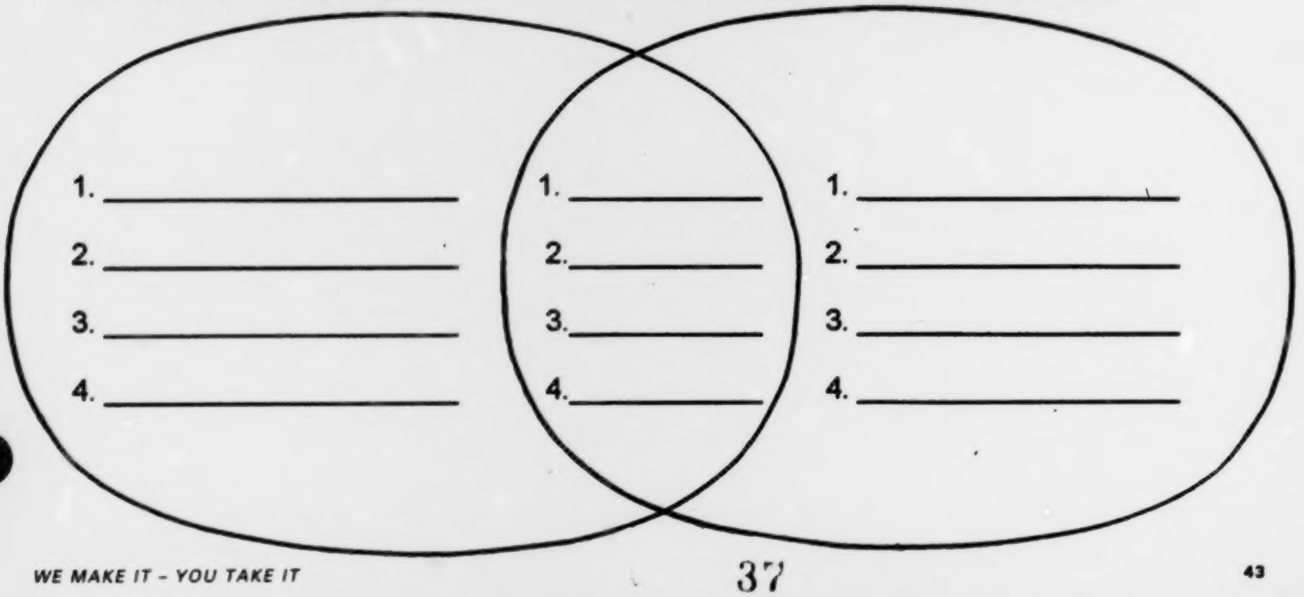
$29 Each, sale

SONY AM/FM stereo cassette player with Mega Bass, metal tape, more.

No. WM-FX103

Above are ads for two similar products. Read each advertisement and complete the comparison chart below.

Found only in **Japanese Ad** Found in **Both Ads** Found only in **U.S. Ad**



1. ____________ 1. ____________ 1. ____________

2. ____________ 2. ____________ 2. ____________

3. ____________ 3. ____________ 3. ____________

4. ____________ 4. ____________ 4. ____________

Name ______________________________
Period _______ Date ________________

COMPARATIVE COSTS

Noriyuki - 16 (Japan)

Sarah (16) - (U.S.A.)

Noriyuki and Sarah are teenagers. Both are part-time employees for McDonald's in their respective countries. Noriyuki earns ¥850 an hour, and Sarah earns $4.85 an hour. Each have made the following purchases.

(U.S. Dollar)	Japanese Yen (¥) Cost	Purchases	U.S. Dollar Cost
(__________)	¥9600	1 pr. of Slacks	45.00
(__________)	¥7650	Shirt	29.00
(__________)	¥12,750	Reebok Shoes	85.00
(__________)	¥850	3 - Ring Binder	1.00
(__________)	¥960	3 - Pencils & Pencil Case	1.50
(__________)	¥________	**TOTAL COST**	$ __________

Using the above information, complete the following questions.

A. Convert Noriyuki's purchases into U.S. dollars using the formula: $1 US = ¥85 (Show your calculations on the back of this worksheet.) Total all three columns.

B. Which teen spent more money in U.S. dollars on school supplies and clothes?
____

C. Noriyuki earns ¥850 an hour, and Sarah earns $4.85 an hour working part-time jobs. How many hours did Noriyuki have to work in order to pay for his purchases? ________________________ How many hours did Sarah have to work in order to pay for her purchases? ______________________ Which teen needed to work fewer hours to purchase their school supplies and clothes?

D. List three conclusions you can make from your calculations and worksheet information.

Name ______________________
Period __________ Date __________

AMERICA'S IMPORT MARKET

PART 1: Visit one or more businesses in our community. Identify at least five products which were "Made in Japan" and have been imported to the United States.

NO.	TYPE OF PRODUCT	BRAND	COST	BUSINESS FOUND AT
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				

PART 2: What other countries export products to the United States? See how many different countries you can identify from which this business has purchased products.

COUNTRY	PRODUCT	COUNTRY	PRODUCT

GROUP PROJECT WORKSHEET

____
Name and/or Type of Product

____
Company Name

Board of Directors ____________________ ____________________
(Group Members)
____________________ ____________________

Marketing technique(s) to be used for promoting our product to:

A. U.S. Teens/Children: ______________________________
____
____

B. U.S. Senior Citizens: ______________________________
____
____

C. Japanese Citizens ages ______: ______________________________
____
____

Cost of Product on U.S. Market = $__________

Cost of Product on Japanese Market = ¥__________ **or approx. $**__________ **U.S.**

ORAL PRESENTATION TO CLASS: Each company board member must have an equal part during the oral presentation.

Include the following:
- a. Information about your company and product to be distributed.
- b. At least three major points or advantages about the product your marketing technique is emphasizing.
- c. The differences in your marketing approach for each of the three target audiences.
- d. Examples of the marketing technique(s) you have chosen.

* **Date oral report is to be given:** ______________________

* Prepare a list of any audio-visual equipment you might need for your oral presentation and give it to the teacher at least one day prior to your presentation.

Trading Relationships and Negotiations – A Problem Solving Activity

by Andrew Gambier
Edmonton Public School Board, Edmonton, Alberta

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

VI. Power, Authority and Governance

- f. Explain conditions, actions, and motivations that contribute to conflict and cooperation within and among nations.

VII. Production, Distribution and Consumption

- a. Give and explain examples of ways that economic systems structure choices about how goods and services are to be produced and distributed.
- f. Explain and illustrate how values and beliefs influence different economic decisions.
- i. Use economic concepts to help explain historical and current developments and issues in local, national or global contexts.

IX. Global Connections

- b. Analyze examples of conflict, cooperation, and interdependence among groups, societies, and nations.
- e. Describe and explain the relationships and tensions between national sovereignty and global interests in such matters as... trade...
- g. Identify and describe the role of international and multinational organizations.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Students in the middle grades will develop an understanding of the economic implications of the trading relationships between North America and Japan by studying the automobile industry in the United States and Japan. Multiple perspectives on these relationships will be examined by researching and role playing the trade policy options open to North American and Japanese automobile companies. Government involvement in the process will also be investigated. Students will further their knowledge of economic concepts such as supply, demand, imports, exports, exchange rates, competition, tariffs, protectionism, expansionism, and the role of sanctions in global economic relationships.

Two lesson plans are presented which build on each other (PART A and PART B). The intent of PART A is to help students understand some basic economic concepts and terms, before proceeding with PART B which consists of a role play activity based on a real trade dispute which occurred between the U.S.A. and Japan during June 1995. This dispute was resolved on Wednesday, June 28, 1995. It is of major significance because it demonstrates that two superpowers can work together to solve problems for mutual benefit. Such a resolution of a difficult trade problem also illustrates that for the time being, a spirit of harmony and cooperation might prevail.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- define and apply basic economic concepts such as supply, demand, imports, exports, market, exchange rates, competition, tariffs, protectionism, expansionism, and the role of sanctions in global economic relationships.
- demonstrate an understanding of trading relationships, and the process of negotiation, between teams representing Japan and the U.S. with respect to accessing automobile markets in these countries.
- develop awareness of the possible causes of trade disputes between Japan and the U.S.
- develop awareness that there are ways to resolve trade problems so that both sides can benefit.

Attitude – Students will:

- demonstrate respect and appreciation for different positions on issues.
- develop appreciation for trust and fairness as important values in negotiation and dealing with others.
- develop a positive attitude to group work.

Skills – Students will:

- draw conclusions about the way in which the economic systems of Japan and the U.S. structure choices about how goods and services are produced and distributed, using the auto industry as an example.
- determine values and beliefs underlying different economic positions on the production, consumption and distribution of autos and auto parts in Japan and the U.S.
- identify and evaluate alternative answers, conclusions, solutions, or decisions regarding questions and issues used for inquiry and research on economic problems in the auto industry in Japan and the U.S.
- write from several points of view with sensitivity to more than one perspective, an essay position paper, letter or editorial on the reasons for tensions regarding trade in autos and auto parts between Japan and the U.S.
- communicate with others clearly and effectively in role play situations.
- observe the courtesies of group discussion, such as speaking in turn using appropriate tone and giving feedback in a non-threatening manner.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 class sessions or more depending on teacher preparation.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- flip chart paper, marker pens, small blank cards suitable for students to make their personal business cards and name cards
- copies of Appendices 1-5.

PROCEDURE

A. Day 1: Part A. As an introduction to the topic, students will need to know some simplified definitions of key economic terms and concepts such as: supply, demand, market, imports, exports, exchange rates, competition, tariffs, protectionism or protecting your own industry, expansionism or expanding your market, and the role of sanctions in global economic relationships.

B. Distribute copies of Appendix 1 – Economic Terms to the class. The teacher may choose to introduce these terms using several approaches including simple worksheets, use of pictorial representations of concepts, use of matching exercises or word games. A simple approach might include jelly beans of various colors and quantities to represent products for trade with some colors worth more than others. Importing jelly beans from outside the classroom can affect supply and demand; the potential for teacher creativity is usually endless and imaginative ways to illustrate economic terms and concepts abound, including the 'teachable moment' of scarcity when students start eating the jelly beans!

C. The teacher will now distribute Appendix 2 – The Japanese Automobile Industry to each student. Let the students read through the information individually and then review the information together as a class activity.

D. After the students have acquired knowledge from Appendix 1 – Economic Terms, and the contents of Appendix 2 – The Japanese Automobile Industry, the teacher will divide the students into small groups. Each group will be given flip charts and marker pens. One student will be designated as recorder. Students will then be asked to brainstorm their responses to the following questions:

Question A. From the U.S. perspective why is it important to have access to Japanese markets in the auto industry?

Question B. From a Japanese perspective, what problems could result if the U.S. had unlimited access to the Japanese market?

Examples of comments might include:

Question A. Sales of the product provide employment for workers, create a need for support industries including servicing and car parts, ... if you do not have a market you cannot sell your product and if you cannot sell your product your company will not make money. Also, U.S. auto makers would like Japanese transplants (Japanese-owned facilities overseas) to purchase more parts made by U.S. auto parts manufacturers, rather than importing those made by Japanese auto parts manufacturers.

Question B. Decline in Japanese domestic production, job loss, cheaper imported cars forcing the price down and creating difficulties for Japanese auto makers. Also, from the Japanese perspective, U.S. makers should export vehicles tailored to Japanese market conditions (including models that are small-sized, fuel efficient and right hand drive) and establish their own dealership network (or perhaps provide an incentive program for Japanese auto dealers who handle U.S. made vehicles).

E. Students will be asked to post their flip charts around the classroom and representatives from each group will be asked to present their groups' comments to the rest of the class.

F. The teacher will highlight some of the important findings from the discussion and all students will be asked to record the information in their notebooks.

G. Day 2: Part B. The teacher will briefly provide a summary of the flip charts from the previous day and focus on the inquiry questions: Question A. From the U.S. perspective why is important to have access to Japanese markets in the auto industry? Question B. From a Japanese perspective, what problems could result if the U.S. had unlimited access to the Japanese market?

H. The teacher will inform the students that: "...an auto dispute has arisen between the U.S and Japan over access to markets...The U.S. auto makers want to export more auto parts and automobiles to Japan, expanding their market. The Japanese auto makers want to protect their markets in Japan while expanding their market in the U.S." Students will be involved in an activity where they will be role playing different individuals and groups involved in this dispute.

I. The teacher will need to assign roles to students. It is assumed for this activity that there will be 30 students in the class. The roles include 12 representatives from the Japanese automotive industry and government, and 12 representatives from the U.S. automobile industry and government. One student will represent the U.S. media and one student will represent the Japanese media. Four students will act as facilitators for the negotiations. Teachers may modify the roles based on the number of students in the class.

J. Follow the instructions for Appendix 3 – Auto Dispute.

K. Bring the proceedings to a conclusion with a discussion of what has been learned about the tensions which exist between national sovereignty and global economic interests in terms of trade between Japan and U.S.A. using the auto industry as an example. Also conclude with how such problems may be resolved.

ASSESSMENT

A. Worksheet/Quiz where students will be able to demonstrate and apply selected economic terms.

B. Individual Report #1 where students must demonstrate that they are able to draw conclusions about how trade relations between Japan and the U.S.A. affect the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services using the example of autos and auto parts, in these respective countries.

C. Individual Report #2 where students must write from several points of view with sensitivity to more than one perspective, an essay position paper, letter or editorial on the reasons for tensions between national sovereignty and global interest regarding trade in autos and auto parts between Japan and the U.S.A.

D. Value Analysis: students must demonstrate their understanding of values and beliefs underlying different economic positions on the production, consumption and distribution of autos and auto parts in Japan and the U.S.A.

E. Role Play Self Evaluation: students must evaluate their own contribution to the role play activity based on participation, clear and effective communication skills and conventions such as observing the courtesies of group discussion, speaking in turn, using appropriate tone and giving feedback in a non-threatening manner.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

For this activity students could research the following questions by contacting the corporations and government agencies involved in the auto trade as well as searching for information using the supplementary resources cited below. Students could present their information using a portfolio, project folder, multimedia report, audio-visual report, or more detailed written business report on their research.

- What is the current position of the various Japanese car makers and corporations with regard to the North American market? Vision, Facts, Figures.
- How are Japanese automobiles and auto parts produced, distributed and consumed in Japan and North America? Select a company and research information.
- From a Japanese perspective what roadblocks are experienced when exporting automobiles to North America?
- What is the current position of the various U.S. car makers and corporations with regard to the Japanese and North American market? Vision, Facts, Figures.
- How are U.S. automobiles and auto parts produced, distributed and consumed in Japan and North America? Select a company and research information.
- From a North American perspective what roadblocks are experienced with respect to exporting automobiles to Japan? What perceptions do the Japanese auto makers have of the North American market?
- What perceptions do the U.S. auto makers have of the Japanese market? Do they plan to expand?

USEFUL SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

1995 The Motor Industry of Japan, Japan Automobile Manufacturers Association (JAMA), Inc. This excellent resource describing details of the auto industry is available from:

Head Office:
Japan Automobile Manufacturers Association
Ohtemachi Bldg., 6-1 Ohtemachi 1-chome
Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100 Japan
Tel: (03)3216-5764
Fax: (03)3286-2073

Washington Office:
Japan Automobile Manufacturers Association
1050 17th Street,N.W, Suite 410
Washington, D.C. 20036, U.S.A.
Tel: (202) 296-8537
Fax: (202) 872-1212

Canada office:
Japan Automobile Manufacturers Association of Canada
2 Sheppard Avenue East, Suite 1406
Willowdale Ontario, Canada M2N 5Y7
Tel: (416) 222-9515
Fax: (416) 226-6774

The Japan Times, June 30, 1995. This issue has many articles devoted to the trade negotiations in autos and auto parts.

TIME, Newsweek and The Economist, June-July 1995; several articles are presented on the trade talks during this time frame.

The Globe and Mail. "U.S. Plots Trade Sanctions", "Honda Believed Revving Up", May 8, 1995; Canadian 'national' newspaper has some excellent articles on trade talks from a different perspective.

The Japan of Today. Tokyo: The International Society for Educational Information Inc., 1993.

"Japan-U.S. Relations: A Cross-Cultural Perspective," Reading # 9, *Newsweek NewsSource:* 1993.

ERIC CD ROM – SilverPlatter Information, N.V. 1995; 731 records and annotated articles about Japan including several on the auto industry.

"The Rise of Japan." *New Internationalist*, No. 231, May 1992.

Mazda Annual Report 1994. Mazda North America Inc. 1994.

Mazda in Brief. March 1995 Edition. Mazda North America Inc. 1995.

Mazda in America. Mazda North America Inc. 1995

Telephone interviews with various public relations officials for the auto companies are very useful; for example:

- Communications and Public Relations, Mazda Canada
- Senior Specialist Public Relations, Mazda North America Inc.
- AutoAlliance International Inc. USA

History Alive, by Teachers' Curriculum Institute. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1994 (an excellent publication with new and innovative approaches to social studies teaching).

APPENDIX 1

Economic Terms

TERM OR CONCEPT	STUDENT DEFINITION
supply	
demand	
market	
imports	
exports	
competition	
exchange rates	
tariffs or import tax	
protectionism	
expansionism	
sanctions	

APPENDIX 2

THE JAPANESE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

(Source: *1995 The Motor Industry of Japan*, Japan Automobile Manufacturers Association, Inc.)

General:

- The automobile industry is a major part of Japan's manufacturing industry and employment. It is the second largest industrial sector of the Japanese economy (after electrical machinery and equipment).
- In 1994 domestic output of motor vehicles was 42 trillion *yen*, about 13.4% of Japan's total manufacturing output for the year (check exchange rates for information: 87 *yen* was equivalent to one dollar U.S. on July 11, 1995).
- Employment in the automotive-related industries accounts for 10% of Japan's work force, approximately 6.5 million people.
- Japan ranks low in passenger cars per capita compared with the U.S. or Europe with one car for every 2.9 persons (1993 figures) or 0.940 cars per household (1994 figures).
- There are 345 cars per thousand people in Japan compared to 588 per thousand in Canada and 769 per thousand in the U.S. (Source: *World Geograph*, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Minnesota Educational Computer Consortium, 1993.)

Japanese Domestic Market:

- Domestic car production has been declining since 1990 in Japan.
- After a period of steady decline since 1990, passenger car sales were up slightly in Japan for 1994. The value of domestic automotive production in 1993 was approximately 41.7 trillion *yen* or 13.4% of the total manufacturing output.
- After 14 consecutive years as the leading auto-producing nation, Japan was outpaced by the U.S. in 1994.

Imports to Japan:

- Sales of imported passenger vehicles in Japan jumped 41.6% in 1994, which resulted in imports attaining a 11.8 % share of Japan's passenger car market (up from 7.5% in 1993). This percentage figure includes cars largely imported from Europe and the U.S.A.
- Sales of U.S.-made passenger cars to Japan increased by 68.2% in 1994, while those of European models increased 31.5%.
- Cars from the U.S. exported to Japan have increased from 4,006 units in 1987 to 91,643 units in 1994. U.S.-made Japanese cars are included in these figures, from 13 units in 1987 to 57,290 in 1994.
- The Japanese Automobile Importers Association attributes the expanding import share of the market to competitive pricing, the stronger *yen*, and an increasing number of outlets and dealerships handling imported vehicles.

Exports from Japan:

- Total motor vehicle exports slumped significantly in 1994 down 11.1%. This was the ninth consecutive year of declining vehicle exports from Japan.
- In spite of this slump exports to the U.S. were up by 1.6%. The U.S. is the largest single export market for Japan's auto industry, accounting for 36.8% of annual vehicle exports.
- In 1994, 1,757,918 units were exported from Japan to North America of which 1,643,221 units were exported to the U.S. Europe was the other major export destination with 1,053,095 units from Japan.

North American Manufacturing Operations:

- Japanese companies have seven U.S. auto-manufacturing operations which taken together involve an investment of $12.5 billion in plants and equipment:
  - Honda of America Manufacturing Inc., Marysville, East Liberty, and Anna, Ohio
  - Nissan Motor Mfg. Corporation USA, Smyrna, Tennessee
  - AutoAlliance International, Inc. (Mazda), Flat Rock, Michigan
  - Diamond-Star Motors Corporation (Mitsubishi), Bloomington- Normal, Illinois
  - New United Motor Mfg. Inc. (Toyota), Fremont, California
  - Toyota Motor Mfg. U.S.A., Inc, Georgetown, Kentucky
  - Subaru-Isuzu Automotive Inc., Lafayette, Indiana
- In Canada, the auto makers are operating three production plants, including a joint venture with GM and a separate parts plant which produces aluminum wheels:
  - Honda Canada Inc., Alliston, Ontario
  - Toyota Motor Mfg. Canada Inc., Cambridge, Ontario
  - Canadian Auto parts, Toyota Inc., Delta, British Columbia
  - CAMI Automotive Inc. (Suzuki) – Joint Venture: GM Canada, Ingersoll, Ontario
- At the core of their localization program Japanese auto makers are expanding local procurement of parts, creating opportunities for North American parts makers. Local procurement means obtaining parts for the auto industry from local suppliers.

APPENDIX 3

AUTO DISPUTE

A. For this activity it is assumed that there are 30 students in the class. The teacher will need to assign roles to students. The teacher may modify the roles based on the number of students in the class. The roles selected include 12 representatives from the Japanese automotive industry and 12 representatives from the U.S. automotive industry. One student will represent the U.S. media and one student will represent the Japanese media. Four students will act as facilitators for the negotiations.

B. The teacher should copy and cut and distribute the information to students as appropriate.

Japanese Negotiating Team

Consisting of representatives from:

1. Toyota (2) – Toyokazu Okuya, Takeshi Shimada
2. Nissan (2) – Naoki Yamamoto, Kazuhiko Kawahara
3. Mitsubishi (2) – Toshiro Aoki, Teiichi Miya
4. Honda (2) – Noriyuki Masuda, Teruyuki Kono
5. Mazda (2) – Shunji Ban, Kyosuke Sato
6. Japanese Automotive Industry (1) – Takuma Kaji
7. Minister of International Trade and Industry (1) – Masato Morishita

ROLE: to negotiate with the U.S. delegates to secure a deal for Japanese auto makers involving increased production in the U.S. Your team will not accept a proposal to specify the numbers of U.S. autos and auto parts to be sold in Japan.

US Negotiating Team

Consisting of representatives from:

1. Ford Motor Company (3) – Todd Lavin, Grant S. Colucci, Jane Sorda
2. Chrysler Corporation (3) – Dick Dunlop, Jack Morris, Karla Costa
3. General Motors Corporation (3) – Tony Dalton, Jim Roberts, Jan Zimmer
4. US Trade Representative (1) – Clint Kanton
5. U.S. Government Liaison (2) – Jenna Marie Cassidy, Pat Schiller

ROLE: to secure a deal with the Japanese delegates opening up the Japanese market for the U.S. auto makers. Your team wants to get the Japanese to accept your proposal which specifies the number of U.S. autos and auto parts to be sold in Japan. However, you are prepared to give in on this proposal in return for access to service repair shops in Japan that repair U.S. autos.

Other Participants:

Media and press representing *The New York Times*, Allen Stremmerman and representing the Japanese media, Yashudo Igarashi.

ROLE: to report on activities and provide news releases regarding the progress of talks periodically during the activity. Remember you will be situated outside the negotiating table and you will have to observe from the sidelines.

Facilitators:

4 students using their own names.

ROLE: to control the negotiations and allow each party to have the same time allocation. Also, they will ensure that each delegate has an opportunity to speak and make clear a position on trade.

C. Divide the groups up so that the Japanese delegation meets together and the U.S. delegation meets together (preferably in separate areas). Distribute Appendix 4 to the U.S. delegation and Appendix 5 to the Japanese delegation. Ask the students to discuss the information on these sheets and tell the students that they will have to develop a strategy about who says what to whom and when. Each student should pick one particular item to make clear his or her position during the negotiations.

D. For ease of use, two groups should be arranged with twelve students, six Japanese representatives and six U.S. representatives. The layout of the classroom should reflect an environment where negotiations can take place with tables or desks arranged in line, with students facing each other. Alternatively, desks arranged in a square would be suitable.

E. The teacher should brief the facilitators whose job it is to ensure that talks run smoothly. Name and place markers may be developed. Remember to emphasize that each facilitator has an important role to ensure that negotiations proceed smoothly and that the discussion does not become out of order. The facilitators must ensure that each delegate has an opportunity to speak and to watch the time allocated so that both sides are treated fairly.

F. Students will introduce themselves (students should be encouraged to design their own name cards) around the table and the company or position they represent. Each student will then be asked to voice his or her position. The order of presentation will follow the list of negotiators provided above, commencing with delegates from the U.S. side with a response from the Japanese side. Then, the Japanese side can make a proposal with a response from the U.S. side. Students should also consult their Appendices 4 and 5, for help in stating their case. Remind the students to role play here. There will be some opportunity for discussion and imaginative responses.

G. The students should go through the bargaining process and eventually bring out their respective positions clearly.

H. Although there is room for movement the teacher should see if the groups can resolve the situation effectively. Ultimately the talks involved a satisfactory outcome with the headlines in *The Japan Times* on Friday, June 30, 1995 stating "Japan and U.S. Reach Accord on Car Trade" and "Both Sides Claim Victory in Car Trade Negotiations."

APPENDIX 4

U.S. NEGOTIATORS

U.S. Car Manufacturers:

Your main objective is to negotiate with the Japanese to get them to open up their markets in Japan, to more American made cars and auto parts.

You are aware of the following:

1. You want access to the Japanese market to supply more of your cars, and in particular, auto parts to the Japanese dealers.
2. You are very keen for the Japanese government to set up voluntary plans outlining its plans for the purchase of foreign car parts and to guarantee implementation. In other words you want to get the Japanese to commit to the number of cars and automotive parts that they will import from you as an American manufacturer.
3. You know that because the *yen* is strong you can export your parts to Japan at what is, to the Japanese, a very good price. It is cheaper for the Japanese to buy car parts from the U.S. rather than from their own manufacturers.
4. You also know that some U.S. auto parts such as shock absorbers, mufflers, tailpipes and disc-brakes sell for less that half to one third the price of parts of comparable quality made in Japan.
5. You know that the President has made a speech to the workers at a Ford Plant in New Jersey, where he has made it clear that if the Japanese do not agree to open up their market to U.S. auto manufacturers, he will make sure that heavy tariffs (or import taxes) are placed on Japanese cars coming into the U.S.
6. You also know that American car manufacturers have not yet succeeded in building a car which is small, cheap and high quality to compete with the Japanese cars.
7. You are also aware of the *keiretsu* system which is sometimes used by the Japanese. This is a system where groups of Japanese companies do business with one another to benefit each other, and this can freeze out competing buyers and sellers, both domestic or foreign. The system can sometimes prevent foreign products from being imported. You believe that this system has limited the import of American auto parts to 1.5% of the Japanese market.
8. You also know that the Japanese could shut down the U.S. auto industry (which is dependent on some Japanese auto parts such as alternators) refusing to allow America to export products to Japan. The Japanese buy approximately $119 billion of exports from the U.S., and if the Japanese so wish they could make it very difficult for U.S. companies to export to Japan, which would severely hurt U.S. industry.
9. You have also received a private and confidential telephone call from the trade advisors to the President, and the U.S. Trade Representative, who have said that if the Japanese do not open up their market to your company, the U.S. will place a 100% tax on 13 models of luxury Japanese cars such as Lexus, imported to the U.S. This will basically make these Japanese cars so expensive in the U.S. that no one will buy them. This represents the use of sanctions. (This is your strongest 'bargaining chip' but do not play this one until the last part of the negotiations: the threat of using this may well be sufficient to get a deal with the Japanese).
10. The President has also expressed concern over the fact that 80% of U.S. car dealers sell foreign cars but in Japan only 7% of car dealers sell American cars or other non-Japanese cars.
11. The following proposals from U.S. companies must be agreed to by the Japanese:

Chrysler Corporation:

Opening up market for Chrysler products, allowing repair shops to work on Chrysler cars.

Signing up new dealers in Japan so that the cars can reach more consumers.

Ford Motor Co.:

Opening up market for Ford products, allowing repair shops to work on Ford cars.

Open up showrooms of Japanese dealerships so that Ford cars can be displayed in greater number.

General Motors Corp.:

Opening up market for GM products, allowing repair shops to work on GM cars.

Compete in an open market with the Japanese similar to the arrangement in the U.S. where Japanese models can compete with the U.S.

12. Unless these demands are met by the Japanese, you will proceed with sanctions and also go to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in Geneva, Switzerland, which will rule on whether the Japanese are using fair trade practices. The WTO will have to rule on the dispute as a neutral panel whose findings are legally and internationally binding.

APPENDIX 6
JAPANESE NEGOTIATORS

Japanese Car Manufacturers:

Your main objective is to negotiate with the Americans. You know they want to open up the market in Japan to more American made cars and auto parts. However, you do not want to commit to target figures of the number of cars and car parts which the Americans can sell in Japan. You also want to expand your market and operating facilities in the U.S. by building more plants and production facilities.

You are aware of the following:

1. You will not set specific targets for the purchase of US auto parts but may agree to raise the amount of car parts used in your US operations.
2. You are concerned about the domestic market based on the following information:
   - Domestic car production has been declining since 1990 in Japan.
   - After a period of steady decline since 1990, passenger car sales are beginning to recover. You do not, however, want American imports or car parts to threaten your industry.
   - After 14 consecutive years as the leading auto-producing nation, Japan was outpaced by the U.S. in 1994.
   - Sales of imported passenger vehicles to Japan jumped 41.6% in 1994, which resulted in imports attaining a 11.8% share of Japan's passenger car market (up from 7.5% in 1993). This percentage figure includes cars largely imported from Europe and the U.S.A.
   - Sales of U.S. made passenger cars to Japan increased by 68.2% in 1994, while those of European models increased 31.5%.
3. You are aware that given the high value of the *yen* you could buy parts from America more cheaply than in Japan. On the other hand, you have agreements with other companies based on trust and you do not wish to affect these companies by importing parts from the U.S. This is in effect part of your *keiretsu* system. Your system involves arrangements with other Japanese companies which do business with each other for mutual benefit. Your system is built on respect, trust, loyalty and economic advantage. Simply expressed, the arrangements made with other companies involve the notion that "you support me and I'll support you" and that trust cannot be broken. (Note: It is important to keep in mind that the *keiretsu* system is changing in Japan.)
4. You must make it clear to the Americans that you do not want to harm the Japanese economy by importing more American automotives or auto parts. This is protection of your own industry. The Americans, of course, must understand this position.
5. You are prepared to allow repair shops (outside the corporate linkage of *keiretsu*) to work on foreign made cars.
6. You also will make a good case for using U.S. made auto parts in some of your cars. This will help U.S. industries.
7. You wish to expand your North American auto plants and auto parts service. Therefore you are prepared to deal with the Americans only if the following plans (Source: *The Japan Times*, June 30, 1995) are met. (Individual companies will propose their positions):

TOYOTA:

Increase U.S production to 1.1 million units.

Boost overseas production so that foreign made Toyota models account for 65% of company sales outside Japan in 1998.

Build a new plant in the U.S. with annual production capacity of 100,000 units to start operation in the next few years.

Establish a new firm by the end of next year to sell imported components.

NISSAN:

Build a new plant for engines in the U.S. in 1997 and one for transmissions after 1998.

Start improving vehicles produced in the U.S. plant.

MITSUBISHI:

Increase U.S. production to 240,000 units from 170,000 in 1994.

Put an additional $300 million into the U.S. plant to increase production and parts purchases in the U.S.

HONDA:

Increase North American production to 720,000 by 1997 from the current 610,000.

Build a new production line for engines in the U.S. plant by 1998.

Invest an additional $310 million for projects concerning the U.S.

MAZDA:

Start production of new models in the U.S. plant and increase the use of U.S. made major components at the time of remodelling

8. Remember that you should represent a Japanese approach which includes being polite, honorable, careful and thoughtful. You should make your case quietly, firmly, and clearly. You should not interrupt your American counterparts, nor should you speak at length. You should also value what your American counterparts have to say, but disagree if needed.

TOPIC

Integrating the Seven Intelligences with Japanese Learning Centers

by Dorothy E. Cost,
Bellefontaine Middle School, Bellefontaine, Ohio

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  a. Compare similarities and differences in the ways groups, societies, and cultures meet human needs and concerns.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

"We need to work toward making our classrooms workshops of learning – a literate community filled with opportunities for many ways of making meaning, surrounded with the work of artists, scientists, writers, and mathematicians, so that students can participate in apprenticeships of learning." (Ernest, Karl *Picture Learning: Artists and Writers in the Classroom*. Portsmouth, NH: Heineman, 1994.)

The purpose of learning centers is to encourage cooperative learning and to address the various learning-style intelligences of students. In order for students to more fully understand and appreciate Japanese culture, we need to develop a learning center approach related to the seven intelligences. These are: linguistic, bodily-kinesthetic, intrapersonal, spatial, musical, interpersonal and logical-mathematical.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- attain a knowledge of one area of Japanese culture using the seven intelligences. They will be able to compare this aspect of culture with its counterpart in Western culture, e.g. sports or homes in the United States or Canada.

Attitude – Students will:

- develop an attitude that although there are many cultural differences, human needs and concerns are very similar in both the United States and Japan.

Skills – Students will:

- choose a learning center and be able to compare, orally or in writing, that aspect of culture with its counterpart in Western culture, e.g., a noh play could be compared to a traditional Western play.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 class periods (the first will be used to complete the center, the second for assessment).

RESOURCES NEEDED

- LINGUISTIC: drawing paper, India ink and a copy of *Folktales of Japan* edited by Keigo Seki and translated by Robert J. Adams, Chicago: University of Chicago, 1963.
- BODILY-KINESTHETIC: pencil and paper and a copy of *Folk Tale Plays Round the World* by Paul T. Nolan, Boston: Plays, Inc. 1982.
- INTRAPERSONAL: a copy of *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes* by Eleanor Coerr and the video (may be purchased from Informed Democracy; Tel. 800 827 0949).
- SPATIAL: shoe box, magic markers, pencils, toothpicks.
- MUSICAL: various tapes of Japanese music from libraries or local music stores.
- INTERPERSONAL: pencil, paper and/or computer and information on Japanese sports from various sources e.g. *Japan* by Peter Spry, New York: Leverton, 1987 and *A Look into Japan*, Tokyo: Japan Travel Bureau, 1991.
- LOGICAL-MATHEMATICAL: pencil, paper, magic markers and a reference book e.g. *A Pictorial Encyclopedia of Japanese Life and Events* by Kaneyoshi Nakayama, Tokyo: Gakken, 1993).

PROCEDURE

A. LINGUISTIC: focused on reading, this is the most traditional approach used in classrooms. Students may read any Japanese folktale. One good choice is "Urashima Taro" which is found in *Folktales of Japan* by Robert J. Adams. Students at this center should read the folktale, and then each student can illustrate a different aspect of the story using India ink.

B. BODILY-KINESTHETIC: focused on acting, physical movement, and the sense of touch. *Noh*, developed in the 14th century, is drama with deep insight into the human spirit. Every movement and sound in the play has meaning. Props are minimal, and the scenery typically is a pine tree painted on a backdrop. A simple *noh* play, "Boshibari and the Two Thieves," (found in *Folktale Plays Round the World* by Paul T. Nolan) may be performed by middle school students.

C. INTRAPERSONAL: focus on the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima by having students read different accounts. Next have students read ***Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes*** by Eleanor Coerr and/or watch the video. Next appoint a student leader to explore the students' feelings related to the story of Sadako. Pass around a sheet of paper and ask each student to write the name "Sadako" as he/she thinks Sadako would sign it. Students could also write a "reflection log" focused on the questions whether or not the dropping of the atomic bomb was a good idea (A reflection log is a journal in which students record their feelings). Introspection is the key word for those of the intrapersonal intelligence; they are concerned with feelings deep within themselves.

D. SPATIAL: for students drawn to art-based projects, the Japanese version of space will be a challenge. The Japanese interpret space differently from people in the U.S. and Canada because they have so little of it. Two illustrations of this are the use of space in Japanese homes and gardens. The book ***Junichi, Boy of Japan*** by G. Warren Schloat, Jr., New York: Knopf, 1964, contains a diagram useful in helping students understand the use of space in a Japanese home. At this learning center, students could design a Japanese home in a shoe box. Using cardboard, they could construct sliding doors ***(fusuma); tatami*** mats (woven rush) may be made from toothpicks (these mats are used to cover parts of the floor in a Japanese home and are about 6 feet long and 3 feet wide).

E. MUSICAL: for students interested in music, have a learning center equipped with tape recorders and headphones, enabling them to listen to tapes of various types of Japanese music (available in most music stores). After listening to the music, students would be responsible for playing back favorite excerpts to the class and explaining why they enjoyed those pieces.

F. INTERPERSONAL: an interpersonal intelligence is highly perceptive. Students of this type enjoy reacting with each other and are empathetic problem solvers. Cooperative education comes easily to this type of student. Collaboration on a Japanese sports newspaper is an activity that would work well. Students could work in pairs to write articles on the following: ***sumo*** wrestling, ***kendo***, golf, baseball, ***judo***, archery, and ***karate***. Information about these sports can be found in most general books on Japan.

G. LOGICAL-MATHEMATICAL: Working cooperatively, this group could design and illustrate a timeline of Japanese festivals held throughout the year. An excellent resource book for this activity is ***A Pictorial Encyclopedia of Japanese Life and Events.***

ASSESSMENT

At each center, students should be able to compare the similarities and differences they found in their cultural study, using the following chart. They should compare Japanese and Western styles.

Similarities	Differences

After charting this information, there could be a class discussion or written evaluation on how these aspects of culture (music, sports, plays, housing, etc.) meet human needs and concerns.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

- LINGUISTIC: students could read and report on other folktales in the book.
- BODILY-KINESTHETIC: purchase 'wiki-sticks' at an art supply store (these bend and can stick to a map). Have students outline Japan on a world map using their "wiki-sticks."
- INTRAPERSONAL: students in this group could lead a class debate over whether the U.S. should have dropped the atomic bomb on Hiroshima.
- SPATIAL: students could design a rock garden, inspired by photos of the garden at Ryoanji, a famous temple in Kyoto, using sand and small rocks. This could be constructed in the cover of a shoe box. Explain to the students that the sand represents rivers, lakes, and oceans. The rocks represent islands, cliffs and mountains. The purpose of a rock garden is to sit and meditate while looking at it.
- MUSICAL: students could investigate traditional Japanese musical instruments such as the ***koto, shamisen*** or ***shakuhachi***.
- INTERPERSONAL: this group of students could pantomime a sport played in Japan and have the rest of the class guess which sport it is.
- LOGICAL-MATHEMATICAL: after checking the current exchange rate of the ***yen*** to the dollar, students could convert the prices of items on the menu at the local McDonald's from dollars to ***yen*** and compare these to the actual ***yen*** prices charged in Japan (this information can be obtained from people in the community who have travelled to Japan recently, from exchange students, Japanese nationals living and working in the area, etc.)

By using the multiple-intelligence learning center approach, students in your classroom should be able to enjoy and retain what they learn; Japan will become alive to them.

TOPIC

Spirituality in Japan

by Karin S. Kopciak
Randallstown High School, Baltimore, Maryland

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  a. Compare similarities and differences in the way groups, societies and cultures meet human needs and concerns.
  e. Articulate the implications of cultural diversity, as well as cohesion, within and across groups.

III. People, Places and Events
  h. Examine, interpret, and analyze physical and cultural patterns and their interactions, such as land use, settlement patterns, cultural transmission of customs and ideas, and ecosystem changes.

IV. Individual Development and Identity
  f. Identify and describe the influence of perception, attitudes, values and beliefs on personal identity.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

The interactive religious patterns of Buddhism and Shinto in the public and private life of Japanese people will be explored in this lesson. In order to understand the richness of Japanese spiritual life, especially in terms of how it is so different from Western ideas about religion and spirituality, this lesson will focus on the unique aspects of Japanese religion that can be observed in public and private life. Students should have completed at least some preliminary reading or activities that have superficially familiarized them with basic information about Japanese religion.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- examine and analyze the meaning of spirituality and religion in terms of their own understanding, and then as a framework for understanding Japanese religion.
- investigate unique aspects of Buddhism and Shinto in the public rituals of Japanese people.

Attitude – Students will:

- explore different ways that people express themselves spiritually.
- identify varying customs that contribute to cultural traditions.

Skills – Students will:

- analyze information with the goal of objectivity and elimination of cultural bias.
- identify how beliefs are made into concrete aspects of everyday reality.

TIME ALLOTMENT

1-2 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

Venn diagrams, dictionaries, and Religion in Japan – Appendix 1.

PROCEDURE

A. Using a Venn diagram (two overlapping circles) and dictionaries, students should write "Religion" over one circle and "Spirituality" over the second circle. Students should be encouraged to define each of these terms in relation to their own understanding and experiences. Point out both the similarities and differences between the organizational aspects of religion, and the more personal, individual, aspects of spirituality.

B. Generate a list of major life cycle events that they consider important and that are usually connected with some type of ritual or commemoration, e.g. birth, death, marriage, coming of age, and school graduation. Then generate a list of ways that people can individually express their spirituality. For example, praying, meditating, doing good deeds, respecting their parents, and thinking about nature.

Explain to students (or distribute Appendix 1 – Religion in Japan) that many Japanese people have both Buddhist altars, *butsudan*, and Shinto shrines, *kamidana*, in their homes. There is no conflict between having both of these religious artifacts in one home. *Butsudan* resemble the ornate styles of Buddhist temples and are specifically used to commemorate dead ancestors. They are adorned with incense, food offerings, beautiful pictures and statues of Buddha, and a bell that is used to alert the deities when the worshipper is offering prayers. *Kamidana* are very simple wood structures that are usually displayed in or close to the highest point in a house. They insure protection and are not part of a prayer ritual or ceremony.

C. Divide the class into several groups. Some groups will focus on religion in public life and other groups will focus on the private religious practices of the Japanese. Use various books, as well as Appendix 1, to assist students in gathering information.

Public Life Student Groups.

Student groups studying public life will study birth, death and marriage. Each group (3-5 students) should complete an assignment that requires students to record facts that outline the following about each major life cycle event:

- where it takes place: Shinto shrine, Buddhist temple, or elsewhere?
- are costumes or artifacts used?
- how it is similar to or different from their own experiences?
- what is spiritual about the life cycle event?
- what is religious about the event? Have each group present its findings to the class.

Private Life Student Groups.

Student groups studying private religious practices should break into groups of 3-5 students in order to draw or design either a *butsudan* or a *kamidana*. If they design a *butsudan*, ask them to include what types of artifacts they might display that would show interests and preferences of any deceased people who may have been enshrined in their *butsudan* if they were Japanese. If they design a *kamidana*, ask students to include a description of the forces of nature or evil from which they would ask for protection. A *kamidana* should show the importance of harmony in nature in its design and purpose. Have each group present its designs, with clear explanations for the elements included in its projects.

D. During the presentations, instruct each student to complete note-taking sheets that will include findings about all three of the events studied, as well as the unique and unifying aspects of *butsudan* and *kamidana*. Emphasize how some rituals are performed in Shinto shrines, and others in Buddhist temples. Ask students what this may reflect about Japanese priorities about religion and spirituality. Which is more important to them if they can peacefully practice two religions? Do people who are followers of most Western religions simultaneously practice two different religions?

E. Discuss how this is another example of cultural diffusion in Japan. Shinto is indigenous, and Buddhism was introduced from India via Korea and China.

F. Discuss how Japanese families will often have both a *butsudan* and a *kamidana* in one household. Ask students to tell you, based on information from both the Venn diagram part of this lesson and group work, how a family could have both of these structures from different religions in one household. What does each one provide? What are the underlying understandings and values that eliminate conflict in the incorporation of religious practices of two religions in one household?

G. Based on all of the information discussed by all of the groups, ask students to decide whether or not Japanese practices are more rooted in the concepts of spirituality or religion. Students can debate this topic, or simply write a cohesive paragraph to back up their opinions.

ASSESSMENT

A. Public Life Student Groups – performance based writing assessment; give students the following writing prompt: A close friend and classmate of yours has recently left your class and moved to another town. This friend did not have the opportunity to participate in the unit on Japan. You tell your friend all about the different activities and skills that you have learned about Japan. You mention that Japan has two main religions, Buddhism and Shinto. You also mention that people observe different life cycle events in either (or both) Buddhist temples, or Shinto shrines. Your friend cannot understand how this is possible. You decide to write a letter to your friend to explain how spirituality is the basis of Japanese religious behavior and how that makes it possible for several different religions to peaceably coexist in one country.

Before you write, think about the similarities and differences between religion and spirituality, and think about how Japan has integrated many other types of foreign ideas and practices into its culture, e.g. baseball, democracy, and the stock exchange. Remember, Shinto is native to Japan but Buddhism is not. Think about how some life cycle events are observed in Shinto shrines, while others are observed in Buddhist temples. Now write a letter to your friend explaining how Shinto and Buddhism are smoothly integrated into one national culture.

B. Private Life Student Groups – performance based writing assessment; prompt: present students with the following quote: "...since most Japanese view religion as a practical extension of everyday life, to be practiced as necessary, they find it quite natural to run to whichever religion covers the area of spiritual life in question. Consequently, they see no contradiction in following two faiths at the same time. It's a bit like taking out two insurance policies for different events, one for now and one for later!" (Source: *Japan* by Tony Wheeler, Robert Strauss and Chris Taylor. Berkeley, CA: Lonely Planet Survival Kit, 1991.)

From the class designs, choose one *butsudan* and one *kamidana* that you would like to have in your home. Write at least three reasons that clearly explain your choices. Use the quote to think about how, for the Japanese, there is no contradiction between following two religions, and tell why Japanese people might want to follow two religions. Write an essay that explains your choices, and shows your thoughts about why many Japanese have sacred artifacts in their homes from two religions.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Making several interdisciplinary connections, e.g. with math for blueprints and scales and art for design, students can design and build their own ***butsudan*** and/or ***kamidana***.

B. Students can construct a model of a Buddhist temple or a Shinto shrine. Coordinate the blueprints, design, layout and decorations with math and art teachers. Students should be careful to distinguish the unique physical features of each structure.

RESOURCES

Earhart, Byron H., *Religions of Japan.* New York: Harper Collins, 1984.

Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission. Stanford, CA: Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education, 1990.

APPENDIX 1
RELIGION IN JAPAN

One of the most unique features of Japanese culture is the fact that it embraces two religions, Shinto and Buddhism. Japanese people participate in different religious rituals. Practicing two different religions is not seen as strange, and there is no competition between these two religions. Buddhism and Shinto are very different in their beliefs, yet they are blended into smooth interactive religious patterns that are an important part of Japanese life and culture.

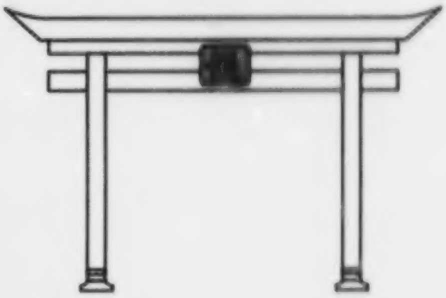
Shinto.

Shinto is the indigenous, or native religion of Japan. It began in ancient history and it has a complex system of deities, or gods that are called *kami*. The term Shinto means the way of many *kami*. It is closely connected to nature and advocates the worship of natural forces and dead heroes. There is no formal written doctrine, and the only images in Shinto shrines are mirrors. There are no statues or pictures of *kami*. The *kami* are everywhere, in nature, in humans, and in peoples' ability to lead a simple sincere life dedicated to family and community.

Shinto is concerned with purification and cleanliness. Shinto shrines provide clean water and ladles for worshippers to rinse their mouths and hands before praying. Japanese people go to Shinto shrines on certain festival days, and also on an individual basis, when they feel the urge to pray. (This is also true for Buddhist temples.)

Shinto shrines are where blessings for the birth of a newborn child and, sometimes, marriages are performed. Japanese homes will often have a *kamidana*, a sort of home shrine godshelf. It is usually displayed in a high point or prominent position in the house in order to show respect to the *kami* and for protection over the inhabitants of the home. It is a somewhat small (about 20-30 inches wide and high) simple wood structure that resembles an actual Shinto shrine.

Every Shinto shrine is marked by a *torii* gate, pictured below. It is a symbol for passing through into a sacred, pure place. They are usually painted red, have a framed picture or *kanji* (character), and can be found both out in rural settings and in busy city scenes.



Buddhism.

Buddhism, which originated in India, was introduced to Japan via China and Korea. This is just one example of the many ways that the Japanese have incorporated ideas and practices from other cultures into their own. Buddhism, like Shinto, teaches that there can be many gods. *Kami* are blended with Buddhas so that people believe that Buddhas are another form of *kami*, almost as if they were opposite sides of the same spiritual coin. Today about 90 percent of funerals are based upon Buddhist rites, although there are both Buddhist and Shinto forms of funeral service. Typically, Buddhism provides sacred space and rituals for funerals. Honoring dead ancestors is a very important part of Japanese beliefs. After death, Buddhist priests give dead people a special Buddhist name. This name shows that these persons are honored by their family and that they have gone on to enlightenment.

Enlightenment is a very central feature of Buddhism. An Indian prince named Siddhartha Gautama founded a way of life aimed at eliminating suffering and finding happiness through enlightenment. This was an awakening toward a higher peace beyond desire and suffering. Gautama is called the Buddha or enlightened one. By following the teachings of Buddha, Japanese people believe that they can achieve enlightenment and activate the spark of Buddhahood that they believe is present in all human beings.

The teachings of Buddhism are contained in written scriptures that have prayers, sutras, that are used for meditation and rituals. There are many rules governing conduct and beliefs in Buddhism. Buddhist temples are often ornate and contain many statues and images of Buddhas. In many Japanese homes, in addition to the *kamidana*, Japanese families have a *butsudan*. *Butsudan* are very elaborate home shrines that contain statues of Buddha, food offerings, incense, and a bell that can be used for prayer and meditation. They are often larger than *kamidana* and are centrally located in homes, as they are used daily for prayer and to honor dead ancestors.

TOPIC

Building A Safer Society: At What Costs?

by Karen Schill
Wisconsin Rapids East Junior High School, Wisconsin Rapids, Wisconsin

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
- a. Compare similarities and differences in the ways groups, societies, and cultures meet human needs and concerns.

VI. Power, Authority, and Governance
- a. Examine persistent issues involving the rights, roles, and status of the individual in relation to the general welfare.
- c. Analyze and explain ideas and governmental mechanisms to meet needs and wants of citizens, regulate territory, manage conflict, and establish order and security.
- d. Describe the ways nations and organizations respond to forces of unity and diversity affecting order and security.

V. Individuals, Groups and Institutions
- g. Apply knowledge of how groups and institutions work to meet individual needs and promote the common good.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This is a comparison study of individual liberties and collective welfare, written constitutions, police policies and criminal procedures in the United States and Japan. In 1994, 38 people were shot to death in all of Japan. In the United States, an average of 44 people were shot to death each day; in all, there were more than 16,000 gun homicides. Is Japan coping more successfully with some of the same issues we face?

This lesson will allow students to examine Japan's social and cultural history, gun policy, police powers and criminal procedure and then question whether Japan offers the United States lessons about ways to achieve security and the price for that security. The students will tackle the question of what collective welfare is and whether individual rights must be surrendered to achieve a better common good or collective welfare. For middle level students this unit will have a particular interest as they discuss issues that have current consequences for civic concepts such as privacy, search and seizure, and juvenile justice. They will also explore the balance of these individual rights with civic responsibility and the promotion of the common good.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- list the differences in crime rates in Japan and the United States.
- list ways in which constitutionally guaranteed rights are different and similar in Japan and the United States.
- describe the differences in the rights of the accused and criminal procedures in Japan and United States.
- describe some of the essential elements of Japanese culture necessary for understanding traditional Japanese political and social philosophy and practice.
- describe how the governmental policies of Japan and the United States strive to meet individual needs and work to promote the common good.
- describe the ways in which Japan and the United States respond to forces of unity and diversity affecting order and security.

Attitude – Students will:

- recognize the importance of collective welfare and individual duties and responsibilities in Japanese society.
- appreciate how a long cultural tradition that emphasizes the collective welfare over individual well-being influences the legal guarantee of individual rights in Japan.
- discover that contemporary realities and issues are shaped by cultural history.
- appreciate that to make sense of, or understand contemporary realities or issues cultural history must be examined and understood.
- understand that Japan's culture and history play a critical role in both the description and actual practice of the government.

Skills – Students will:

- critically compare the written constitutions of Japan and the United States.
- present written hypotheses about differences in U.S. and Japanese crime rates.
- complete charts in which similarities and differences in written constitutions and social policies and practices are recorded.
- prepare a position paper, editorial or speech in which the student has determined which elements of Japanese society are valuable and offer lessons for Americans.
- learn to critically examine issues which involve the rights, roles, and status of the individual in relation to the general welfare.
- practice analyzing ideas and governmental mechanisms which strive to meet the needs and wants of citizens and also to establish order and security.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 to 4 class sessions or several more, depending on the extension activities used.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- copies of United States Constitution for students

- resources students may need to do presentation projects: poster board, markers, tape recorder, video recorder, etc.
- copies of Appendices 1-6.

PROCEDURE

A. Use an overhead or make copies of Appendix 1 – The United States and Japan, with its crime statistics for students. Brainstorm with the class or facilitate small group discussions on reasons why there is such a drastic difference in crime in Japan and the United States. Each group or individual should write three possible explanations in their notebooks. Students could also write a short essay with hypotheses about the reasons for Japan's lower crime rate. Use an open discussion or sharing session to allow students to voice their theories. Focus on theories which analyze the role of the Japanese government and the kinds of freedoms that the students believe that Japanese citizens do or do not have. Record the theories that are presented on the chalkboard or overhead.

B. Distribute the handout, Appendix 2 – The Constitution of Japan: Chapter III, Rights and Duties of the People. Using a copy of The Bill of Rights of the United States Constitution in small groups or individually, the students will complete the comparison chart (Appendix 5). Follow the activity with a classroom discussion. Do the students agree that both constitutions provide for basic fundamental rights? What does this comparison of constitutionally guaranteed rights reveal? Have students refer to the list of theories created earlier-does the list need to be revised or narrowed?

C. The teacher will present Appendix 3 – Background Notes to the students through lecturing or by reproducing the handout for the students. The information will be used to complete the comparison/contrast chart (Appendix 6) about Japanese and American society, constitutional and cultural history, criminal procedures and police powers. Note that the information for the United States is not included here. An interesting class discussion will result as the students try to generalize about these components of American society. Instruct the students to take time to register their comments on the appropriate column. These may be observations of similarities and contrasts, mention of whether the student agrees that the procedures are a good or bad idea, or questions the student may have for class discussion. After the charts are completed the class should reach a consensus about three primary reasons for the differences in crime rates in the two countries. Further discussion should center on how the students feel about the idea of limits to freedom to insure security for citizens. The students should begin to formulate opinions as to whether Japan pays a price for security and also whether the United States pays too much attention to individual rights and not enough to the interest of the group or society at large. An informal survey of the class could take place with a few members voicing opinions to the questions posed. Another option is to have the students create a "human graph" (in this technique students physically take a position pertaining to a particular issue by placing themselves on an opinion spectrum outlined on the class floor or wall) to represent their stance on the issue. Notebook essays could follow summarizing what the students have discovered about Japanese and U.S. societies.

D. Distribute Appendix 4 – Crime Commission Project. As an extension or alternative to this assignment, the students could produce a videotape of their positions or enhance their writing with editorial cartoons or posters. Possibly the editorials could be presented in a series of speeches after which the class could pose questions to the speaker.

ASSESSMENT

A. Is the student able to explain how individual rights may be limited to insure or promote the general welfare or common good?

B. Is the student able to describe ways in which the governments of Japan and the United States can be compared and contrasted in meeting the needs of their citizens?

C. Is the student able to demonstrate the ability to reach a well-reasoned conclusion regarding methods for a society to balance individual liberties with the common good?

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Have the students create poems, essays, skits, videos or posters in which they address questions raised by the unit. These may include: What are the advantages/disadvantages of conformity? What are proper and improper methods in maintaining a safe society? What limits to freedom insure safety? Is safety from crime necessary to insure human rights?

B. Have the students research and compare and contrast the investigations and indictments of the suspects involved in the bombing of the Alfred Murrah building in Oklahoma City and the Tokyo subway gas attack in 1995. They could use a news broadcast format to report to the class about the findings.

C. Using questions raised during class discussions in this lesson, have the students create a survey and distribute it to several members of the community.

D. Have the students research proposed limits on civil liberties in many communities around the United States.

E. Use electronic connections to communicate with students in Japan about their perceptions of crime and violence in the United States.

F. Have students conduct further research on the issues raised in this lesson and create cartoons or skits which reflect the role of the Japanese and U.S. police, courts or peer groups in a selected event.

G. Invite local law enforcement personnel to address issues.

APPENDIX 1

THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN

The March 1995 subway attack in Tokyo may cause people to believe that Japan is not an ideal crime free society – but according to *The New York Times*, the subway gassing which killed 12 persons was "a fluke." Until that terrorist attack, there had never been a killing recorded in Tokyo's subways, which carry 75 percent more people each day than New York City's. In contrast, an average of 18 people have been killed in New York's subways in each of the last five years. Though Japan's crime problems are now growing, they are not spiraling out of control as in some other industrialized nations. For most of the post-war period, Japan's crime rate fell steadily. Crime problems bottomed in the 1970's and have been rising for about the last 15 years, but even now they are lower than they were in the late 1940's and 1950's. In comparison the violent crime rate in the United States rose 41% from 1983 to 1992.

A comparison of Japanese and U.S. 1994 crime statistics in rates per 100,000 inhabitants

	Japan	U.S.
Murder	0.98	9.5
Robbery	1.75	9.5
Arson	1.13	45.9
Burglary	186.9	1,099.0
Aggravated Assault	5.4	440.0

Number murdered by firearms:

Japan (1994)	34
U.S. (1993)	16,189

Proportion of total murders committed with guns:

Japan (1994)	3%
U.S. (1993)	70%

Sources: F.B.I.; Japanese National Police Agency; Human Rights Watch and Sentencing Project

Prisoners per 100,000 people (1994):

Russia	558
UNITED STATES	519
South Africa	368
Singapore	229
Spain	90
Germany	80
Denmark	66
JAPAN	37

Source: "Human Rights Watch and Sentencing Project" as quoted in *The New York Times*, May 14, 1995.

APPENDIX 2

THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN, 1947

Chapter III. Rights and Duties of the People

ARTICLE 10. The conditions necessary for being a Japanese national shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE 11. The people shall not be prevented from enjoying any of the fundamental human rights. These fundamental human rights guaranteed to the people by this Constitution shall be conferred upon the people of this and future generations as eternal and inviolate rights.

ARTICLE 12. The freedoms and rights guaranteed to the people by this Constitution shall be maintained by the constant endeavor of the people, who shall refrain from any abuse of these freedoms and rights and shall always be responsible for utilizing them for the public welfare.

ARTICLE 13. All of the people shall be respected as individuals. Their right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness shall, to the extent that it does not interfere with public welfare, be the supreme consideration in legislation and in other governmental affairs.

ARTICLE 14. All of the people are equal under the law and there shall be no discrimination in political, economic or social relations because of race, creed, sex, social status, or family origin. Peers and peerage shall not be recognized. No privilege shall accompany any award of honor, decoration or any distinction, nor shall any such award be valid beyond the lifetime of the individual who now holds or hereafter may receive it.

ARTICLE 15. The people have the inalienable right to choose their public officials and to dismiss them. All public officials are servants of the whole community and not of any group thereof. Universal adult suffrage is guaranteed with regard to the election of public officials. In all elections, secrecy for the ballot shall not be violated. A voter shall not be answerable, publicly or privately, for the choice he has made.

ARTICLE 16. Every person shall have the right of peaceful petition for the redress of damage, for the removal of public officials, for the enactment, repeal or amendment of laws, ordinances, regulations and for other matters; nor shall any person be in any way discriminated against for sponsoring such a petition.

ARTICLE 17. Every person may sue for redress as provided by law from the State or a public entity, in case he has suffered damage through illegal act of any public official.

ARTICLE 18. No person shall be held in bondage of any kind. Involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime, is prohibited.

ARTICLE 19. Freedom of thought and conscience shall not be violated.

ARTICLE 20. Freedom of religion is guaranteed to all. No religious organization shall receive any privileges from the State, nor exercise any political authority. No person shall be compelled to take part in any religious act, celebration, rite or practice. The State and its organs shall refrain from religious education or any other religious activity.

ARTICLE 21. Freedom of assembly and association as well as speech, press and all other forms of expression are guaranteed. No censorship shall be maintained, nor shall the secrecy of any means of communication be violated.

ARTICLE 22. Every person shall have freedom to choose and change his residence and to choose his occupation to the extent that it does not interfere with the public welfare. Freedom of all persons to move to a foreign country and to divest themselves of their nationality shall be inviolate.

ARTICLE 23. Academic freedom is guaranteed.

ARTICLE 24. Marriage shall be based only on the mutual consent of both sexes and it shall be maintained through mutual cooperation with the equal rights of husband and wife as a basis. With regard to choice of spouse, property rights, inheritance, choice of domicile, divorce and other matters pertaining to marriage and the family, laws shall be enacted from the standpoint of individual dignity and the essential equality of the sexes.

ARTICLE 25. All people shall have the right to maintain the maximum standards of wholesome and cultured living. In all spheres of life, the State shall use its endeavors for the promotion and extension of social welfare and security, and of public health.

ARTICLE 26. All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided by law. All people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive ordinary education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free.

ARTICLE 27. All people shall have the right and the obligation to work. Standards for wages, hours, rest and other working conditions shall be fixed by law. Children shall not be exploited.

ARTICLE 28. The right of workers to organize and to bargain and act collectively is guaranteed.

ARTICLE 29. The right to own or to hold property is inviolable. Property rights shall be defined by law, in conformity with the public welfare. Private property may be taken for public use upon just compensation therefor.

ARTICLE 30. The people shall be liable to taxation as provided by law.

ARTICLE 31. No person shall be deprived of life or liberty, nor shall any other criminal penalty be imposed, except according to procedure established by law.

ARTICLE 32. No person shall be denied the right of access to the courts.

ARTICLE 33. No person shall be apprehended except upon warrant issued by a competent judicial officer which specifies the offense with which the person is charged, unless he is apprehended, the offense being committed.

ARTICLE 34. No person shall be arrested or detained without being at once informed of the charges against him or without the immediate privilege of counsel; nor shall he be detained without adequate cause; and upon demand of any person such cause must be immediately shown in open court in his presence and the presence of his counsel.

ARTICLE 35. The right of all persons to be secure in their homes, papers and effects against entries, searches and seizures shall not be impaired except upon warrant issued for adequate cause and particularly describing the place to be searched and things to be seized, or except as provided by Article 33. Each search or seizure shall be made upon separate warrant issued by a competent judicial officer.

ARTICLE 36. The infliction of any torture by any public officer and cruel punishment are absolutely forbidden.

ARTICLE 37. In all criminal cases the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial tribunal. He shall be permitted full opportunity to examine all witnesses, and he shall have the right of compulsory process for obtaining witnesses on his behalf at public expense. At all times the accused shall have the assistance of competent counsel who shall, if the accused is unable to secure the same by his own efforts, be assigned to his use by the State.

ARTICLE 38. No person shall be compelled to testify against himself. Confession made under compulsion, torture or threat, or after prolonged arrest or detention shall not be admitted in evidence. No person shall be convicted or punished in cases where the only proof against him is his own confession.

ARTICLE 39. No person shall be held criminally liable for an act which was lawful at the time it was committed, or of which he has been acquitted, nor shall he be placed in double jeopardy.

ARTICLE 40. Any person, in case he is acquitted after he has been arrested or detained, may sue the State for redress as provided by law.

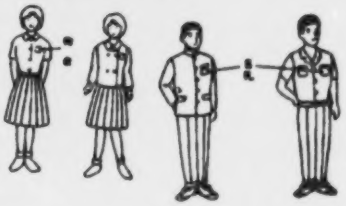
Source: *Facts about Japan.* Tokyo: The International Society for Educational Information, Inc., 1988.

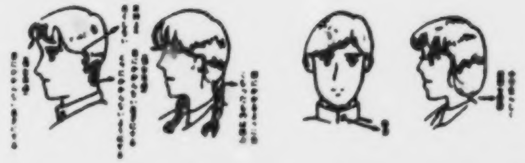
APPENDIX 3

BACKGROUND NOTES

Though Japan is home to the same criminal activities that plague the United States – murderous motorcycle gangs, arsonists, kidnappers, embezzlers – more than any other developed country, Japan has resolved to "just say no" to crime. Japan, with 48% of the population of the United States, has one-twentieth as many killings, one-seventieth as many arson cases, and one-three-hundredth as many robberies. What can the United States learn about this level of security and the price of that security?

Basic Values in Japanese Society: Social Identity and Family Structure





Can you imagine having to wear the school uniforms pictured above? Or having your hairstyle monitored by your school? Or having your parents punish you by making you stay outside of the house instead of "grounding" you inside of the house? In Japan the value of good behavior, of fitting into a common and conforming society and the social pressure to do things right, is instilled in children from the moment they set off to first grade (often in identical school uniforms). In Japan, an individual's self-esteem depends upon his or her identification and conformity within the group. An individual's sense of well-being, identity and security is also tied to his membership in and the meeting of the goals of the family, workplace, school, neighborhood, and nation. This acceptance is so important that group needs and welfare are perceived as more important than individual needs or wants. People are taught to think about and behave according to what they can do to promote the general welfare, rather than what they are entitled to as individuals. Japanese, therefore, often assess individual rights and freedoms in the context of group welfare. Using this perspective, Japanese sometimes view such rights as selfish because of their potentially negative impact on group welfare.

Think of the American proverb, "The squeaky wheel always gets the grease" and compare it to the Japanese proverb, "The nail that sticks up gets hammered down."

It is difficult for a deviant to stand against a group and gain the support he or she would gain in the United States. Because an individual in Japan is identified as a member of a group, the family, peer-group or workplace is affected by the reputation of a deviant and, therefore, exerts considerable pressure on a potential deviant to live up to standards. Those who do not conform to narrow guidelines are quickly criticized and pressured until they fall within those guidelines, and realize the benefits of working toward the good of the community.

A number of different aspects of Japanese culture seem to foster the preeminence of the collective good. Some of these aspects include economic and social pressures linked to Japan's geography and the ensuing necessary accommodation; the notion of a nation traced to an emperor and the perception of a national family; and prescriptions of social order mandated by Confucian principles. Indeed, when the present 1947 Constitution was drafted by the U.S. occupation forces under General Douglas MacArthur, it largely reflected American experiences and ideals and often opposed centuries long Japanese tradition and values. Japan had been grounded in the belief of the divinity and sovereignty of its emperor. The new Constitution, however, advocated the principle of popular sovereignty, and established a number of individual rights.

Criminologists also say that Japan's small income gaps (for example, the difference between the income of an average Japanese worker and the company CEO is much closer than it would be in the U.S.), low unemployment and common social identity (85 percent of Japanese define themselves as middle-class) contribute to a shared antipathy toward crime. To the extent that broken families are connected with crime, Japan has a major advantage over the United States. In 1994, only 1.1 percent of Japanese children were born to unmarried mothers, for instance, while in the United States the figure was 30.1 percent.

Japan's Gun Policy

Japan has a long history of gun control. The first guns, matchlock rifles, were brought to Japan in the 1540s by Portuguese merchants. In 1588, Hideyoshi Toyotomi confiscated swords and guns from the peasant population to reduce the potential for violence. Guns were unpopular with *samurai* for cultural reasons as well; although an efficient way to kill one's enemies, using a musket was considered both crass and shameful. Despite the fact that there had been a large number of guns in the country before the ban, some Japanese still maintained a deeply entrenched cultural attachment to swords (some rejected the "foreignness" of firearms). As time passed, guns did not reclaim a foothold in Japanese society. In movies, *samurai* dying from gunshot wounds often berate their opponents for cowardly attacking them from a distance with a firearm rather than honorably fighting them face-to-face with a sword. Modern Japanese share this disdain for guns and do not object to being largely barred from owning guns.

Outside the police, there are only 49 legal handguns in Japan, all belonging to marksmen. Even they cannot keep their guns at home but must deposit them at a shooting range. Shotguns and a limited number of hunting rifles are allowed, but the owner must pass a rigorous licensing procedure and exam. This license must be renewed every three years. As a result there are about 425,000 guns in private hands in Japan, overwhelmingly shotguns and air rifles, and the number is dropping. In the United States, experts say, there may be 200 million guns. Ordinary street criminals in Japan do not normally have access to guns, and a person caught with a loaded pistol can be imprisoned for 15 years. In 1995 the Japanese government revised the Firearms and Swords Control Act to increase the maximum punishment to life imprisonment for gun smugglers and illegal manufacturers of firearms. Also, discharging a firearm in public is now a crime, regardless of damage. There is no current movement in Japan to change or relax these gun policies.

Building a Crime Free Community in Japan

Picture a police officer knocking on your door, gathering information about your household and your possessions and returning six months later to keep track of any changes, meanwhile monitoring your daily patterns of coming and going. In Japan this is not seen as an intrusion of privacy but rather a part of maintaining a strong community relationship among police and citizens.

In every Japanese city each neighborhood has its own ***koban*** or police box, staffed up to 24 hours a day by police officers called ***omawari-san*** or Honorable Walkabouts. The building block of law in Japan is this neighborhood police box. Each household in Japan is expected to register all residents with the local ***koban*** to aid the police officers in knowing the neighborhood. In return for the service of officers taking note of information about ownership and the ordinary location of cars and other valuable property, Japanese citizens feel the duty to report to police officers when they see suspicious people or suspicious activities. A crime prevention association is organized as part of every village to ensure that the local people specifically have the responsibility of assisting the police. When a policeman is pursuing a suspect, he or she can count on networks of local relationships.

In addition to responsibilities of visiting each house semi-annually and patrolling the neighborhood the ***omawari-san*** have broad powers. They can stop anyone who looks suspicious and ask that person to come to the ***koban*** for a "discussion." They can even ask people to empty their pockets or bags. Crime prevention in Japanese neighborhoods depends largely upon this relationship between the citizens and the police. The police and community members actively work together to prevent crime. Individual measures for home security such as handguns (which are illegal), guard dogs and security systems are basically unheard of in Japan where private people converse and take great initiative with the police. In the United States contact with the police is usually initiated only when a person is a victim of crime. Some refer to Japan's style of policing as "the friendly neighborhood police state." Japan spends more of its gross national product on police than the United States does, even though it has many fewer crimes. The New York City Police, for example, have to answer more than twice as many emergency calls as do the police in all of Japan. Japan is also more likely than the United States to catch criminals. The proportion of crimes solved has been tumbling in Japan in recent years, but it is still 37 percent, compared with about 20 percent in the United States.

Burglary is also unattractive in Japan because it is not very lucrative. Japanese do not much like to buy second-hand goods, and the police keep a close eye on pawn shops. Anyone selling used goods in quantity gets a lot of police attention, and so there is not a large secondary market for stolen goods.

The Police and the Rights of an Accused Person

A large number of suspects confess to the police or the prosecutor before formal charges are filed. The police are aided in the pursuit of confessions by the Code of Criminal Procedure, which allows the detention of suspects for up to 23 days without formal indictment or presentation before a judge. During this interval, suspects do not enjoy the right of access to state-appointed lawyers, although they may hire their own legal counsel if they wish. Suspects are frequently detained in facilities operated by the police, and the police claim a right under the Code to restrict visitation (including visits by lawyers) in the interests of the investigation. These factors enable the police to proceed, by developing a human relationship with the suspect, to the obtaining of a confession or, in many cases, multiple confessions. The police often conduct daily interrogations in which enormous pressure is put on detainees to confess. Some human rights groups say that anonymous interrogators sometimes rough up suspects and deprive them of food and water, as well as force them to stand in fixed positions for long periods. Partly because of these pressures, Japanese defendants are far more likely than Americans to admit crimes and plead guilty. The American notion that a defendant could legally consult lawyers and refuse to talk to the authorities is unthinkable. Authorities may be relentless in their questioning, but in their view truth is arrived at through an open process of information gathering. The Japanese police, on their own authority, may detain a suspect for forty-eight hours; the suspect is then turned over to the public prosecutors, who have twenty-four hours to apply to a judge to obtain a remand order. Judges can then authorize as much as twenty days further detention under supervision of the prosecutors before a charge is filed. The police are also given much greater leeway than in the U.S. to question people on the street and search their pockets or bags.

Courts and Prisons

Japanese courts tend to defer to police judgments; in any case evidence can be admitted in court even if it turns out to have been seized illegally. In the United States it is assumed at times that police could act without adequate regard for the rights of the suspect, and judges therefore constrain police action. In Japan the police are expected to have inner discipline so that courts rarely challenge police decisions.

Japanese prosecutors have an astonishingly high conviction rate: some 99% percent of those people who are brought to trial are found guilty (it should also be noted that many cases are settled prior to trial). Determinations of justice are made less on the basis of technical legal grounds or skillful legal argument than on an overall assessment of whether a person has done something fundamentally wrong and whether he is likely to engage in such misbehavior in the future. In the Japanese view, truth is not best arrived at by adversary relations wherein lawyers try to be as clever as possible in bending the law to favor one side. Even more different to U.S. ways of thinking, a considerable number of Japanese confessed criminals are never taken to court, and only 4% of convicted criminals go to jail. The rest are let off with fines or suspended sentences and placed under the guidance of a nationwide network of volunteer parole officers. The prime objective of a Japanese prosecutor, in short, is not to send an offender to prison but to secure his confession, repentance and reform.

In the United States, newspapers routinely carry indignant stories about paroled criminals who have gone on to murder, rob or rape. Japanese papers seldom have the occasion to do so. The reason is that any Japanese who has once suffered the psychic torments of social disapproval or rejection is unlikely to risk facing that experience again.

Prison sentences are shorter than in the U.S., and the prison population is small by world standards (see statistics in Appendix 1). In Japan, escapes are almost nonexistent and there appear to be few problems with prison gangs or rapes or assaults among prisoners. The reason is that prisoners are sometimes kept in tiny, individual cells, and at times they are barred from talking to one another or even looking at one another. Prisoners cannot hold private conversations even when they are working. This makes forming gangs in prisons almost impossible. Human Rights Watch, which is based in New York, published a report in 1995 which concluded that "prisoners in Japan experience routine violation of human rights." Of special concern is the especially large population of prisoners who spend years in complete isolation.

SOURCES:

- Bayley, David H. *Forces of Order: Police Behavior in Japan and the United States.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1976.

- Christopher, Robert C. *The Japanese Mind: The Goliath Explained.* New York: Simon and Shuster, 1983.
- Cogan, John J. and Donald O. Schneider. *Perspectives on Japan: A Guide for Teachers.* Bulletin No. 69. Washington D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983.
- "Crime in Japan" *Understanding Japan.* February 1995.
- "Japanese Say No to Crime: Tough Methods, at a Price" Nicholas D. Kristof, *The New York Times,* Sunday May 14, 1995.
- "A Neighborly Style of Police State" Nicholas D. Kristof, *The New York Times,* June 4, 1995.
- Parisi, Lynn S. *The Constitution and Individual Rights in Japan: Lessons for Middle and High School Students.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/ Social Science Education and the National Clearinghouse for United States-Japan Studies, 1992.

APPENDIX 4

CRIME COMMISSION PROJECT

Imagine that our United States government became very serious about making our country crime-free. A commission was then established to study Japan specifically and analyze any lessons that Japanese society could offer our country in coping with an increasing crime rate. (It was rumored that many members of the commission wanted the U.S. to adopt many of Japan's police policies; also, some found the idea of school uniforms attractive). This commission involved many days of expert testimony which covered all facets of Japanese life from school uniforms and conformity to police procedures and prisons. This commission is now deliberating on a decision and the country is eagerly awaiting the results.

Pretend that you are a newspaper reporter who witnessed all of the testimony. Your assignment is to write an editorial in which you have reached your own conclusion as to which direction the United States should take in solving its crime problem. You must weigh the merits of each society (refer to your comparison chart) and establish in your editorial a position on basic policies which you believe the United States should adopt. You should make recommendations on social and educational values, a gun policy, the powers of the police, privacy rights, the rights of an accused person, and our court and prison system. Some of your policies may be similar to an existing policy but you should give reasons as to why you believe that those policies are correct.

In addition your editorial must also direct a response to any three of the following quotes taken directly from testimony from the commission.

a. Koichi Miyazawa, law professor at Keio University in Tokyo: "I think that there is a lot that Japan has sacrificed for safety... safety has been achieved at the expense of freedom."

b. Kazue Akita, a criminal lawyer: "I'm afraid that people in Japan give too much power to the police.. but safety from crime is also necessary to maintain human rights, at least women in Tokyo can walk on the street at night."

c. Luis Santos, social worker: "In the United States we are much too concerned with the rights of the deviant, rather than the rights of the responsible citizen... There is not a healthy balance between individual rights and public responsibility and the interest of the group or society at large."

d. Dan Kunitz, ACLU member: "I believe in what Ben Franklin said over 200 years ago, 'Those who give up a little liberty for safety's sake deserve neither liberty nor safety'."

e. Corey Charkoudian, soup kitchen manager: "We should not be interested in making our police and courts more authoritarian. We need to look at the parts of our American society that feel alienated and left out. There is too much poverty which causes crime. The answer is not to take away individual rights; it is to insure equal opportunity for all people – that is what Japan has and the United States does not."

f. Anonymous resident of a housing project in an American city: "I have bars around my windows, I can't leave my house for fear of being mugged... I wish our country was more like Japan, then I could exercise my freedoms!"

g. Tammy Schumacher, school administrator: "School uniforms and strong conformity and peer pressure to behave is exactly what our schools need. Too many students come to school fearful of violence or harassment. A school should be a safe place to learn. How can we be worried about individual expression in our schools when some of our students do not live to be adults?"

h. Father Stephen Hogan, pastor, "We should not modify our Constitution, our guaranteed civil liberties or our schools. What needs changing is the American family. We have to solve the problem of broken homes and lack of family responsibility before we try to tinker with anything else."

i. Bill Tate, electrician: "Japan is too culturally unique – what works for them would never work for us. For God's sake they had an emperor for centuries and our history of individual liberties is too strong. We cannot go to the collective welfare idea, it's just not American."

ARTICLE NUMBER AND WHAT ARTICLE GUARANTEES	DOES THE U.S. CONSTITUTION INCLUDE A SIMILAR RIGHT? IF YES LIST THE AMENDMENT NUMBER	ARTICLE NUMBER AND WHAT ARTICLE GUARANTEES	DOES THE U.S. CONSTITUTION INCLUDE A SIMILAR RIGHT? IF YES LIST THE AMENDMENT NUMBER
Article 10		Article 25	
Article 11		Article 26	
Article 12		Article 27	
Article 13		Article 28	
Article 14		Article 29	
Article 15		Article 30	
Article 16		Article 31	
Article 17		Article 32	
Article 18		Article 33	
Article 19		Article 34	
Article 20		Article 35	
Article 21		Article 36	
Article 22		Article 37	
Article 23		Article 38	
Article 24		Article 39/40	

Adapted from an activity in *The Constitution and Individual Rights in Japan: Lessons for Middle and High School Students.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and the National Clearinghouse for United States–Japan Studies, 1992.

	Japan	United States	Comments
Emphasis of Individual Liberties and Collective Welfare			
Basic Social Values, Social Identity and Family Structure			
Gun Policy			
Building a Crime-free Community			
The Police and the Rights of an Accused Person			
Courts and Prisons			

TOPIC

Perspectives on Hiroshima and Nagasaki: How History Makes Its Mark on a People

by Frederick L. Ginocchio
Madison Middle School, Appleton, Wisconsin

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  b. Explain how information and experiences may be interpreted by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.

II. Time, Continuity and Change
  e. Develop critical sensitivities such as empathy and skepticism regarding attitudes, values, and behaviors of people in different historical contexts.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson is designed to give middle school students an understanding of how one historical event can be viewed and remembered differently by the people of two different countries: Japan and United States. Students will also learn how different historical perspectives surrounding a single event can affect the values and thoughts of citizens in each country.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- summarize basic information (when, where, what) on the actual bombings.
- describe human casualties and property damage from Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Attitude – Students will:

- demonstrate an understanding that different citizens may describe the same event or situation in different ways. Students will provide reasons or evidence for different views.
- develop critical sensitivities, such as empathy and skepticism regarding attitudes, values, and behaviors of people in different historical contexts.

Skills – Students will:

- use knowledge of facts and points of view from history to inform decision making.
- synthesize information and group ideas to create a project expressing a point of view. Projects may include but are not limited to: poems, pictures, posters, slogans, letters, news articles, editorials, short plays, cartoons, or an object.
- explain how information and experiences may be interpreted by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- resources students may need to do projects: markers, construction paper, glue, scissors, poster paints, large sheets of paper, tape recorder, video recorder, etc.
- Appendices 1-5.

PROCEDURE

A. To introduce the lesson during the first class session, discuss with students an event in their lives, the lives of their friends, or their immediate families that they vividly remember, an event that had a huge impact on them. This could be a death, divorce, marriage, graduation, accident, prize, etc. Discuss how it has affected their thoughts and feelings, and how it may have affected what they believe or how they act to this day.

B. Make the connection that historical events affect people or a country in a similar way. Explain that for the next couple of days they are going to look at how a major, vivid historical event involving Japan and the United States left its mark on citizens in both countries. They will examine how it has affected people's thoughts and feelings.

C. Teacher will review the context of World War II and facts on the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Use Appendices 1 and 2 (Fact Sheets 1 and 2) as a starting point.

D. Form groups of three students. Teacher can assign for group balance or allow students to choose their own groups, and can assign group roles such as reader, and recorder, or let students assign their own roles.

E. Teacher will give each group Appendices 3 and 4 (Exhibits A and B) to investigate the Japanese and American perspectives.

F. Each group will be given the two exhibits. The Japanese exhibit is A (Appendix 3) and the American is B (Appendix 4). Make a study guide for students to list the thoughts and feelings represented by each perspective. As they examine and discuss the exhibits, students should brainstorm ideas on what they think Japanese citizens felt and thought and what U.S. citizens felt and thought about the dropping of the atomic bomb on Japan. (Try to get students to list at least 5 thoughts and 5 feelings from each country's perspective.)

G. Let students work for 15 minutes to brainstorm thoughts and feelings. The teacher should circulate in class and assist groups. Students should have ideas written down from each exhibit.

H. After students have a good list of ideas (write a letter to some one, draw a picture, do an interview with a witness, make a poster with a caption, write a poem, or write a news story) for their exhibits, the teacher should have each group decide on two activities, one for the Japanese perspective and one for the U.S. perspective, to express what lasting impact the atomic bomb had on the Japanese and the U.S. point of view. Tell the students they need to get a good start on it this day.

I. During the second class session, students should finish their activity. Try to get them to finish within 15 minutes.

J. Have a representative from each group explain its project to the class.

K. The teacher will discuss with the class the similarities and differences of perspectives. Use Appendix 5 – Dropping the Atom Bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki worksheet on the overhead. Have students take notes.

L. To finish the lesson, each individual student should answer the question: "What might the American president and the Japanese prime minister say to a reporter if asked what they each think today about the A-Bomb being dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki?" (All students should write a paragraph on each perspective.) This could be homework or given in class.

ASSESSMENT

A. Group cooperation and following directions. (Discuss what cooperation involves.) – 20 points.

B. Group project and explanation (teacher should discuss with class what qualities are needed in the group project to get all the points) – 50 points each.

C. Individual report. (Emphasize the qualities which make for a good answer.) – 30 points.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Add additional exhibits from the Japanese or American point of view. (Pictures, eyewitness accounts, poems, stories, etc.) Some good exhibits can be found in the following sources:

- "Text of Statements by Truman, Stimson on Development of Atomic Bomb." *The New York Times.* August 7, 1945.
- "Nagasaki Blasted by 2D Atom Bomb." *The New York Times.* August 9, 1945.
- Dower, John and Junkerman, J. *The Hiroshima Murals: The Art of Iri Maruki and Toshi Maruki.* Tokyo: Kodansha, 1985.
- Japan Broadcasting, ed. *Unforgettable Fire: Pictures by Atomic Bomb Survivors.* New York: Pantheon, 1977.
- Lifton, Robert Jay, and Falk, Richard. *Indefensible Weapons: The Political and Psychological Case Against Nuclearism.* New York: Basic Books, 1982.

Also, The Wilmington College Peace Resource Center, Pyle Center Box 1183, Wilmington, OH 45177; Tel. (513) 382-5338 is an excellent resource with a huge collection on this topic.

B. Students could do more extensive projects like a painting, series of poems, a story, a play, an entire newspaper from one perspective.

C. Groups could do further research and create a museum of exhibits from either the Japanese or U.S. perspective. They could then write to U.S. and Japanese museums to determine if their museum exhibits are similar to or different from the real ones.

APPENDIX 1
HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI
FACT SHEET 1

Statistics of Damage Due to the Atomic Bomb

1. HUMAN DAMAGE IN HIROSHIMA

So far, various figures have been released with regard to the statistics of human damage due to the atomic bomb, but the accurate figures are still not available today after 30 years. The following estimates are given as reference.

(1) The figures given below, excluding military servicemen, were released on August 10, 1946 by Research Section, Hiroshima City Hall.

	Number
Dead	118,661
Missing	3,677
Seriously wounded	30,524
Slightly wounded	48,606
Persons without any injury	118,613
Total	320,081

(2) The figures given below, excluding military servicemen, were released on November 30, 1945 by Hiroshima Police Headquarters.

	Number
Dead	78,150
Missing	13,983
Seriously wounded	9,428
Slightly wounded	27,997
General suffers	176,977
Total	306,535

(3) The figures given below were reported to the United Nations in November, 1976 by Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

The number of deaths by the end of December, 1945: approximately 140,000 (±10,000).

2. DAMAGE TO BUILDINGS IN HIROSHIMA

	Number
Totally burnt	55,000
Half burnt	2,290
Totally destroyed by blast	6,820
Half destroyed by blast	3,750
Forest fire	12

(From Peace Memorial Museum, Hiroshima, Japan)

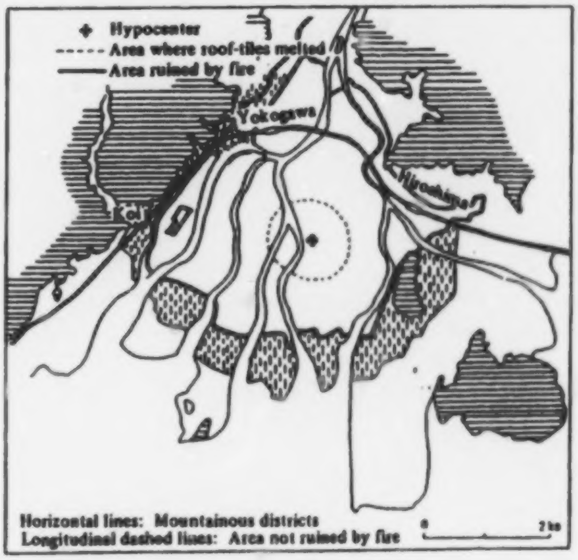
APPENDIX 2
HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI
FACT SHEET 2

3. DAMAGED AREA

Gross area of the city	72.7 km^2
Area ruined by fire	13.2 km^2
Area affected by atomic bomb	30.3 km^2

The city of Hiroshima was at the time of bombing the size of 72.7 km^2, 18% of which, approximately 13.2 km^2, was ruined by fire.

The area generally damaged by the atomic bomb was approximately 42% of the city; however, it is actually 92% of the utilized area, which is only 33 km^2 out of the gross area of the city. And the vast range of 13.2 km^2, 40% of utilized area, turned into scorched atomic desert.


Hypocenter
----- Area where roof-tiles melted
—— Area ruined by fire
Yokogawa
Hiroshima
Koi
Horizontal lines: Mountainous districts
Longitudinal dashed lines: Area not ruined by fire
0
2 km

Map showing the range of area ruined by fire

4. THE A-BOMBED POPULATION AND NUMBER OF THE A-BOMBED DECEASED IN HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

(1) Estimated population at the time of the atomic bombing:

Hiroshima City	350,000 (approx.)
Nagasaki City	270,000 (approx.)

(2) Estimated number of the A-bomb deceased at the time of the atomic bombing (all figures approximate):

Number of deaths	As of the beginning of Nov., 1945	As of 1950
Hiroshima City	130,000	200,000
Nagasaki City	60,000–70,000	140,000
Total	190,000–200,000	340,000

(From Peace Memorial Museum, Hiroshima, Japan)

APPENDIX 3

A JAPANESE NEWSPAPER EDITOR'S THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS ON THE DROPPING OF THE A-BOMB ON HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

Exhibit A

Lecture from Mr. Yoshihiro Ando, General News Editor for *The Chugoku Shimbun*, June 29, 1995 in Hiroshima, Japan

BACKGROUND

Mr. Ando was born in 1943 in Hiroshima and graduated from Hiroshima University with a degree in Education in 1965. He has covered atomic bomb and peace related issues since joining *The Chugoku Shimbun* staff in 1965. Since March 1994, Mr. Ando has served as General News Editor for the newspaper.

LECTURE HIGHLIGHTS

Japan repents causing bad things in the Pacific region during the Second World War, but American citizens and Japanese do not share the same opinions on the atomic bomb. The dropping of the bomb cannot be justified.

The war between America and Japan was going to be ended even without the bomb. From March 1945 Japan was making negotiations to make peace with the Soviet Union and America. Also when it was decided that the bomb would be used, scientists and opinion leaders were opposing its use in war. I am not making these remarks to support the *hibakusha* (survivors of the atomic bomb); I just want to share with you the tragedy of the bomb being dropped. Still, there are over 300,000 *hibakusha* and many are still suffering from the effects of the atomic bomb.

We have also seen many tragedies from the development of nuclear weapons. We recently featured a story of how American soldiers were forced to pass under a nuclear cloud to test human reactions to radioactivity. I fear that even today national governments are striving to develop and promote nuclear weapons at the sacrifice of citizens of their nations. We have to abolish the weapons by the next century. We have to ask the younger generation to carry on our task for total abolition of atomic bombs.

I try to keep this inscription in mind: "Closing eyes to the past means becoming blind to the present age as well."

FROM THE PEACE MEMORIAL MUSEUM

On a plaque in the museum three factors were identified as to why the United States dropped atomic bombs on Japan:

1. The U.S. wanted to limit its own casualties by forcing Japan to surrender as quickly as possible.
2. The U.S. wanted to force a surrender of Japan before the Soviet Union could enter the (Pacific) war so it could secure a stronger political position when the war ended.
3. The U.S. wanted to use the weapon in war to measure its effectiveness.

APPENDIX 4

U.S. MARINE'S THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS ON DROPPING THE A-BOMB ON HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI

Exhibit B

Interview with Mr. James J. Weisgerber Retired, U.S. Marine Corps

BACKGROUND

Mr. Weisgerber currently resides in Appleton, Wisconsin. He participated in the Pacific theater during World War II as a U.S. Marine. He is a survivor of the battle of Iwo Jima, and also personally participated in Roi Namur, Eniwetok, Saipan, and Tinian campaigns. When he heard the news of the atomic bomb being dropped on Hiroshima he was in Virginia undergoing training in officers candidate school. Mr. Weisgerber was interviewed on May 27, 1995.

INTERVIEW

WHAT WERE YOUR THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS AFTER YOU HEARD THE A-BOMB WAS DROPPED ON HIROSHIMA?

"I was jubilant! I thought, finally, once and for all the war would be over with. I knew that when I finished training I would be shipped back into the fleet marine force in the Pacific.

"I am glad it happened. It saved millions of lives, Japanese people and our own people. The Japanese would not have surrendered like the Germans did. They are such fanatical people and would commit suicide before being captured. I didn't understand the suicide attacks *(kamikaze)*. I remember one plane diving into a destroyer. A general on Iwo Jima committed suicide before surrendering and then another soldier chopped his head off.

"I thought that the Japanese were running rampant, killing and murdering people in China and Korea and throughout Asia. They had to be stopped somehow. With the dropping of the bomb, I felt relief."

WHAT ARE YOUR THOUGHTS AND FEELINGS NOW?

"Now, I can feel for the Japanese people. At that time I couldn't because of how they treated people inhumanly. I had a friend on the death march in Corregidor, Philippines and he told me about the awful treatment he received.

"People in the United States suffered too. We went on rations, had to work in war industries, and the military took anyone who could walk practically. We worried that we could have been invaded right after Pearl Harbor.

"Naturally, I wouldn't have wanted the atomic bomb dropped on us. I know it has been said before, but war is hell! That's it! I am glad I'm through with all this and I don't have to live it again. Sometimes I pity my grandson and what he may have to face in this world."

Dropping the Atom Bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki

Japanese Perspective

United States Perspective

How are they alike?

1. ______________________________

2. ______________________________

3. ______________________________

How are they different?

	With Regard To	
	Results	
	Feelings	
	Importance	
	Effect on future	

Introduction to High School Lessons

The seven high school lessons in *Tora no Maki* vary widely in their subjects and can be incorporated into a wide range of social studies and other high school classes. High school students are capable of learning about several facets of another culture and then developing connections between those facets to get a sense of that culture as a whole. These lessons offer varied and unusual angles in approaching Japan in this fashion or as enrichment resources in a conventional unit on Japan in World History, World Geography, or World Cultures classes.

High school students are also capable of acquiring an understanding of a particular part of another culture and using it as a comparison with their own culture, reflecting on the question, "What might this mean for us?" In this way, these lessons will be equally valuable in examining major issues in United States History or American Government or Economics classes. The themes of these lessons (and the NCSS *Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* that they exemplify) are of wide conceptual application in the high school curriculum.

"Getting to School," by Dr. Lynn Burlbaw, asks students to compare data on modes of transportation used by students at several Japanese high schools, to contrast these with the student transportation in the United States that they are used to, and to form hypotheses about student body demographics in Japan based on their findings. The data provided here is quite unique.

Lamont Colucci's lesson, "Fifty Years After the War," focuses on the much-discussed 1945-1995 time span and asks students to look at the startling comeback of the Japanese economy in those years as well as the political climate that shaped the Japanese surrender in contrast to Japanese politics and decision-making today. Students are called on to compare the roles of the Emperor then and now.

How does it feel to live in Tokyo? "Japan: The Best Place to Live?" is an investigation of the quality of life in present-day Tokyo, with sources collected by author Patty Morris which are used as data on which groups of students can build conclusions. The analysis model (and chart) provided by Mrs. Morris is readily transferable to students' own cities.

What accounts for the high productivity of Japanese workers? In "Working Conditions and Work Ethic," Elaine Pierson has provided a remarkable primary source document from a Japanese corporation for analysis by American students. Using the resulting insights into corporate working conditions in Japan, students are asked to trace the relationship between these conditions and the fabled Japanese work ethic. Not all Japanese cars are exported. "The Automobile in Japan" by Michael Schultz has a double focus: it deals with the prominent position of automobile manufacturing in Japan's economy, and it helps students to understand the place of the automobile in Japanese domestic culture and society today. Students will be challenged to think about the role of the automobile in their own lives.

Tom Sorosiak's lesson, "Agriculture: Partners in Trade," provides insights into the changing role of agriculture in Japan, using analyses of Japanese domestic food production, imports, and exports as information bases. A farmer as well as a teacher himself, Mr. Sorosiak brings particular and valuable insights into this study of an especially sensitive part of the Japanese economy.

What is the biggest problem facing Japan today? "The Graying of Japan" by John Hergesheimer presents statistics over the last 48 years to trace the growth and then the rapid aging of Japan's population. Following a quick review of Japan's social security, medical care, and pension systems, students are asked to examine the social and economic implications of a shrinking working population supporting one of the world's largest retired populations.

High school teachers are also urged to examine the rich lode of *Tora no Maki* lessons in this volume designed for middle school students – and even those designed for elementary students. Many of these fine lessons are readily adaptable to the needs of high school classes.

JOHN HERGESHEIMER
High School Team Leader

TOPIC

Getting to School

Dr. Lynn Matthew Burlbaw
Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture

  a. analyze and explain the ways groups, societies, and cultures address human needs and concerns.

V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions

  a. apply concepts such as role, status, and social class in describing the connections and interactions of individuals, groups, and institutions in society.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson was designed to give high school students an opportunity to examine data related to how students at different types of high schools in Japan get to school. The sociological, cultural, and geographical questions which were the stimuli for this lesson were: With no transportation provided by high schools in Japan, how do Japanese students get to school? How long do they travel to get to their school? What does this tell us about Japanese high schools, about teenagers' lives and culture?

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- describe the various forms of transportation used by Japanese students in traveling to school.
- identify the various lengths of time students spend in traveling to school as a function of desirability of school and type of transportation used.
- describe how enrollment and transportation patterns differ in relation to the type of school attended.

Attitude – Students will:

- understand that Japanese students make choices and pay time costs in order to achieve desirable goals.
- understand that Japanese students and American students have similar goals.

Skills – Students will:

- read and draw conclusions from data in tabular form.
- display tabular data in chart form to aid in analysis.
- gather, display, interpret, and infer from data to answer questions.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- one copy of Appendix 1
- teacher information sheet (Appendix 2)
- five student handouts with tables (Appendices 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7)
- colored pencils, and graph paper

PROCEDURE

A. Introduce the lesson by reading to the students Appendix 1 – Getting to School: Japanese Students Travel to School. Ask students to suggest ways they think Japanese students get to school. Write the suggestions on the board.

B. Give students copies of Appendix 3 – Two High Schools in Tokyo. Have the students calculate the percentage of each high school class who get to school using each of the types of transportation. Then have students calculate the percentage of the total of students in the high school who go to school by each of the transportation means listed. Students can ignore any cell with fewer than 10 students listed.

C. Share with students the description of Tokyo Metropolitan Shohwa Senior High and Tokyo Metropolitan Musashi Senior High Schools found in Appendix 2.

D. Ask students to compare the percentages found in the two charts and answer the questions at the bottom of Appendix 3.

E. Give students copies of Appendix 4 – A High School in Hiroshima. Again have them calculate the percentages for each class and for the school as a whole.

F. Share with students the description of Akifuchu Senior High School found in Appendix 2.

G. Ask the students to answer the questions for Appendix 4.

H. Repeat the handout/percentages/questions procedure for Appendix 5 – Travel Time to School by Class, Appendix 6 – Travel Time to School by Type of Transportation, and Appendix 7 – Enrollment by Class and Gender. Some questions will require students to refer back to earlier handouts.

I. Ask the class to come up with some generalizations about Japanese high schools based on the information they have analyzed in this lesson. How do Japanese students get to school? How much of their day is spent getting to and from school? What kind of high schools does Japan have? Does the type of high school make any difference in the school transportation patterns? How do these patterns and types of schools compare with those in the United States. (See Extension activity, below, for a more quantitative comparison technique.)

ASSESSMENT

A. Students demonstrate an understanding of objectives by answering questions related to handouts.

B. Students demonstrate the ability to translate tabular data into graph and chart forms by creating charts and graphs.

C. Students demonstrate understanding of and skill at gathering data by designing a survey which gathers data which can be compared to data given on Japanese schools.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Have students create a survey instrument and conduct a survey of their classmates to collect data on methods of getting to school and length of time spent in getting to school. Compare data gathered to data given for Japanese students. Identify similarities and differences in attendance, travel modes, and travel times found in two data sets.

TEACHER RESOURCES

Bowring, Richard, and Peter Kornicki, eds. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Japan*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1993.

About Japan Series. Education in Japan. Tokyo, Japan: Foreign Press Center/Japan, 6th floor, Nippon Press Center Building, 2-2-1 Uchisaiwai-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100, 1995.

APPENDIX 1

GETTING TO SCHOOL

Japanese Students Travel to School

Each day, over 20 million Japanese children attend school in grades kindergarten to high school. Education is compulsory and free for all children through junior high school (approximately age 15) in Japan. High school, which is not required of Japanese children, provides academic and vocational education programs. Since attendance is not required, students may attend whichever high school provides the education which will best prepare them for what they want to do in the future. Well over 90% of Japanese teenagers do finish high school.

Financial and social success in Japan depends largely on attending the right university. Getting into the university of their choice is important, "since employers in Japan still tend to be much more interested in which university recruits have attended than how they did there or even what they studied" (Bowring and Kornicki 1993, 247). Often students choose high schools based on how well students from that school have done on the entrance examinations in previous years. Since not all types of schools are found in all neighborhoods, students often travel a great distance to attend the prestigious school of their choice.

This lesson examines how Japanese students travel and how long it takes them to travel to school. The first important piece of information to know is that schools and school systems do not provide transportation to the schools. There are no parking lots at high schools in Japan for student cars; few students drive to school (night school students often drive) and some are given a ride. So, very much as students do in urban centers in the United States, many students in Japan use various forms of public transportation to go to school. The lesson also provides an opportunity for students to compare the time and modes of transportation used by Japanese students to how American students get to school.

APPENDIX 2
TEACHER INFORMATION

Information About the Particular Schools Included in Appendices

The Tokyo schools are all located in the western part of Tokyo. They represent a variety of types of high schools, ranging from college preparatory/academic to technical/vocational.

Tokyo Metropolitan Shohwa Senior High School
This school is a 4-minute walk from the Higashi Nakagami train station. One Tokyo teacher reported that students at this school have low academic performance and the school is supposedly a very hard school to teach at.

Tokyo Metropolitan Musashi Senior High School
This school is a 10-minute walk from the Musashi- Sakai train station. The students have high academic performance.

Tokyo Metropolitan Hachio-ji Technical Senior High School
This school is a 10-minute walk from the Nishi-Hachioji train station. No information was given on academic performance of students at this school.

Tokyo Metropolitan 5th Commercial Senior High School
This school is a 20-minute walk from the Kunitachi train station. This school prepares students to be secretaries, accountants and clerks.

Akifuchu High School, Hiroshima, Hiroshima Prefecture
This is an international focus school, similar to magnet schools in the United States. Competition to get into Akifuchu High School International Program is stiff; each junior high school in the Hiroshima area is allowed to send one or two students to this program. Two hundred and forty-two of the 1195 students attending Akifuchu High School are enrolled in the International Program. Eight hundred and sixty-one students (72%) came from five junior high schools near Akifuchu High School. No data is given on travel time to the school but many students travel two hours each way to get to school as students come from many places in Hiroshima prefecture outside of Hiroshima city.

The data used in this lesson came from various school information pamphlets. There does not appear to be a uniform or common way of reporting information about students and schools. Because of this, the same data are not available for all schools and some data are reported in different forms or categories (e.g., travel time to schools).

APPENDIX 3
TWO HIGH SCHOOLS IN TOKYO

Type of Transportation Used to Attend High School

Table 3a: Tokyo Metropolitan Shohwa Senior High School – Number of Students Using Each Type of Transportation.

Type of Transportation	*Class 1**	*Class 2*	*Class 3*	*Total*
Walking	5	7	10	22
Bicycle	95	99	80	274
Public Bus	0	0	0	0
Japan Rail	153	169	171	493
Japan Rail then Private Rail line	84	69	71	224
Other	1	7	14	22
Total	338	351	346	1035

Table 3b: Tokyo Metropolitan Musashi Senior High School

Type of Transportation	*Class 1**	*Class 2*	*Class 3*	*Total*
Walking	10	5	2	17
Bicycle	241	241	306	788
Public Bus	4	1	4	9
Japan Rail	44	46	23	113
Private Rail	7	6	1	14
Japan Rail then Bus	4	2	0	6
Japan Rail then Private Rail	36	26	26	88
Private Rail then Bus	7	16	11	34
Combination of Three	7	8	25	40
Total	360	351	398	1109

* High schools in Japan consist of 3 grades or classes. In Japan, 10th grade is called *Koko Ichinensei*, literally meaning "High School First Grade." The 11th grade is *Koko Ninensei* – "High School Second Grade" and the 12th grade is *Koko Sannensei* – "High School Third Grade."

Questions for Appendix 3

1. Which method of transportation is used most at each of the schools?
2. How might the location of the railway station in relation to each school affect the means of transportation used by the students?
3. One of the high schools on Appendix 3 is only a 4 minute walk from a railway station. The other is a 10 minute walk from a railway station. Which high school do you think is closer to the railway station? What information did you use to make your decision?
4. What other questions might be answered by analyzing Appendix 3?

APPENDIX 4

A HIGH SCHOOL IN HIROSHIMA

Type of Transportation Used to Attend High School

TABLE 4A: AKIFUCHU HIGH SCHOOL, HIROSHIMA – HOW STUDENTS TRAVEL TO SCHOOL

Type of Transportation	*Class 1**	*Class 2*	*Class 3*	*Total*
Walking	142	114	118	374
Bicycle	130	136	167	433
Public Bus	14	12	17	43
Japan Rail then Bus	21	11	18	50
Japan Rail then Bicycle	11	26	16	53
Japan Rail then Walk	0	1	0	1
Bus then Bicycle	23	43	23	89
Bicycle, Japan Rail, Bus	20	14	15	49
Bus, Japan Rail, Bicycle	14	23	20	57
Other	19	16	11	46
Total	394	396	405	1195

Questions for Appendix 4

1. From the data given on this handout in Table 4a and on Appendix 3, would you say that Akifuchu High School is less than or more than a 10 minute walk from the Japan Rail station nearest the high school? What data did you use to arrive at your decision?
2. Because you know that the international program is very competitive and prestigious, and only one or two students come from any one junior high school, which of the travel groups listed do you think represent the students in the international program? Which group represents the majority of the general study program?
3. Look at the enrollment figures in Table 4b; which program has a greater enrollment of students? How do the enrollment figures by boys and girls differ between the two programs?

TABLE 4B: AKIFUCHU HIGH SCHOOL, HIROSHIMA – STUDENT ENROLLMENT BY CLASS AND BY PROGRAM

Class	General Program		International		Totals		School
Class	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
1*	179	138	17	60	196	198	394
2	168	147	16	65	184	212	396
3	181	140	19	65	200	205	405
Total	528	425	52	190	580	615	1195

* High schools in Japan consist of 3 grades or classes. In Japan, 10th grade is called *Koko Ichinensei*, literally meaning "High School First Grade." The 11th grade is *Koko Ninensei* – "High School Second Grade" and the 12th grade is *Koko Sannensei* – "High School Third Grade."

APPENDIX 5
TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL BY CLASS

TABLE 5: TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL BY CLASS FOR TWO TOKYO SCHOOLS

School	*<30 min*	*30-60 min*	*60 min*	*>60 min*
Tokyo Metropolitan Shohwa Senior High School				
Class 1 *	196	154		5
Class 2	163	182		6
Class 3	162	176		8
Total	521	512		19
Tokyo Metropolitan Hachio-ji Technical Senior High School				
Class 1	130		90	25
Class 2	127		96	34
Class 3	138		79	29
Total	395		265	88

* High schools in Japan consist of 3 grades or classes. In Japan, 10th grade is called *Koko Ichinensei*, literally meaning "High School First Grade." The 11th grade is *Koko Ninensei* – "High School Second Grade" and the 12th grade is *Koko Sannensei* – "High School Third Grade."

Questions for Appendix 5

1. According to a Tokyo teacher, students at Tokyo Metropolitan Shohwa High School have low academic performance and teachers find it very hard to teach at this school.

   Knowing what this one teacher says about this school and what your teacher read about admission to universities in Japan, why do you suppose so few students travel more than 60 minutes to attend this school?
2. Combining the information on this table, Number 5, and Table 3a on Appendix 3, what method(s) of transportation do you think is most used by the students who travel between 30 and 60 minutes to Shohwa High School?

APPENDIX 6
TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL BY TYPE OF TRANSPORTATION

TABLE 6: TRAVEL TIME TO SCHOOL BY TYPE OF TRANSPORTATION – TOKYO METROPOLITAN MUSASHI SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Type of Transportation	*< 30 Min*	*30–60 min*	*60–90 min*
Walking	15	1	1
Bicycle	536	252	0
Public Bus	3	6	0
Japan Rail	31	76	6
Private Rail	3	8	3
Japan Rail then Bus	1	5	0
Japan Rail then Private Rail	5	73	10
Private Rail then Bus	2	26	6
Combination of Three	1	29	10
Total	597	476	36

Questions for Appendix 6

Use the information in Table 6 to answer questions 1 and 2.

1. What percent of the students attending Tokyo Metropolitan Musashi Senior High School spend less than 30 minutes getting to school?
2. What is the most common means used by students to get to school. What percent of all the students use the most common method?
3. Using either a pie graph or a bar graph, graph the percentage of students attending each of the schools in Tables 5 and 6 according to time spent getting to school. For Hachio-ji Technical High School, combine the 60 minute and greater than 60 minute groups.

APPENDIX 7

ENROLLMENT BY CLASS AND GENDER

TABLE 7A: TOKYO METROPOLITAN 5TH COMMERCIAL SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Class	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1*	50	234	284
2	37	281	318
3	22	316	338
Total	109	831	940

TABLE 7B: TOKYO METROPOLITAN SHOHWA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Class	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1*	174	164	338
2	178	173	351
3	174	172	346
Total	526	509	1035

* High schools in Japan consist of 3 grades or classes. In Japan, 10th grade is called *Koko Ichinensei*, literally meaning "High School First Grade." The 11th grade is *Koko Ninensei* – "High School Second Grade" and the 12th grade is *Koko Sannensei* – "High School Third Grade."

Questions for Appendix 7

Use the data in Tables 7a and 7b to answer the following questions.

1. Look at the enrollment figures for the high schools in Tables 7a and 7b. What percent of students in each school are boys?
2. Japanese society and business have very traditional views on the role of women in society and the workplace. Very few Japanese women have management positions in companies. Remembering what your teacher read about the high schools, how can you explain the enrollment pattern at the 5th Commercial Senior High School?
3. Make a line graph to show differences in enrollment figures at each of the high schools. What conclusions can you draw about the numbers of boys and girls attending each of the high schools?

TOPIC

Fifty Years after the War

by Lamont C. Colucci
James Madison Memorial High School, Madison, Wisconsin

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
   b. Predict how data and experiences may be interpreted by people from diverse cultural perspectives and frames of reference.

II. Time, Continuity and Change
   b. apply key concepts such as time, chronology, causality, change, conflict, and complexity to explain, analyze, and show connections among patterns of historical change and continuity.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/ RATIONALE

The immense changes in Japan since the end of World War II contain much that is revealing about Japanese culture as well as the directions of the modern world in the second half of the 20th century. This lesson is designed to illuminate some of the economic and political changes.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- Compare the state of the Japanese economic system in 1951 (the immediate post-war era) and in 1995 (the present decade).
- Describe current Japanese attitudes about the legacy of World War II.

Attitude – Students will:

- See that there are historical and cultural reasons for the differences between Japanese and American perspectives on events of 50 years ago.
- Understand how the events of 1945 directly relate to the reality of 1995.

Skills – Students will:

- Infer relationships between statistics of economy recovery and business practices.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- Appendices 1-6
- transparency or poster of Appendix 3
- copies of Appendices 1 and 5 for all students

PROCEDURE

A. Introduce the lesson making this statement: "Japan has gone from rubble to riches in only 50 years." Describe the condition of Japan in the fall of 1945, using visuals if possible. Then say: "What legacy of that dreary time in 1945 still pervades Japanese society? That is the question which this lesson will try to answer." Then explain briefly the sequence for the lesson.

B. Distribute copies of Appendix 1 – An Economy Changed to all students. Discuss the statistics and have the students consider the great changes in the Japanese economy since World War II. Teachers may wish to emphasize these ideas:

   1. Japan was not always an economic powerhouse. Why?
   2. Japan had a legacy of the *zaibatsu* (industrial and financial combines), which influenced Japanese thinking about the roles of government and business.
   3. Protectionism was encouraged by the GHQ (General Headquarters) of the occupation army.
   4. US-Japan economic policy was largely motivated by Cold War politics.

C. Present Appendix 2 – The Five Developmental Stages of the Postwar Japanese Economy in a micro-lecture format, with an emphasis on student-centered questions and discussion.

D. Present Appendix 3 as a wall chart or transparency, illustrating some general differences between the Japanese and the American view of work and company. Discuss them briefly, explaining that they are generalizations and that many exceptions exist in both nations.

E. Ask students to work individually on the critical thinking essay. The instructions in Appendix 4 can be written on the board. When the essays are completed, the teacher will grade them on content, clarity and critical thinking skills. The papers should be discussed when they are handed back.

F. Present the events of August 1945 relating to the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki and the events in the Japanese cabinet leading to the Japanese decision to surrender. Try to get students to discuss the roles of the imperial army, *bushido*, and the traditional role of the Emperor in these events. Spector's book (See Teacher Resources, below.) offers a concise account. Leonard Mosley's biography of Hirohito gives a more detailed and rather dramatic account.

G. Then present and briefly explain the following situations in the 1990s:
   1. Hiroshima and Nagasaki are both thriving, important, industrial population centers.
   2. Both cities are international symbols of peace.
   3. The Emperor has a clearly limited, constitutional role in Japanese government.

H. Divide students into groups and give each group copies of Appendix 5 – Japanese Points of View, Fifty Years Later. Write on the board the questions in Appendix 6 which each group must address.

I. When enough time has elapsed, ask groups to report their conclusions to the class.

J. Ask the class for examples of American and Japanese perspectives on the events of 1945 and since.

ASSESSMENT

A. The critical thinking essay, "Japan's Economic Miracle," may be graded as indicated.

B. Observations of the group reports in Step I and the class discussion in Step J may be made.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

Ask students in small groups or in the total class to discuss the following:

A. Given the legacy of World War II what should Japan's role in the world be?

B. Should Japan change Article 9 of her constitution limiting military action abroad?

C. Should Japan continue the mutual security treaty with the United States?

D. Should Japan become a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council?

TEACHER RESOURCES

Mosley, Leonard. *Hirohito: Emperor of Japan.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1966. Chapter 22 deals with events preceding the surrender.

Spector, Ronald H. *Eagle Against the Sun.* New York: The Free Press, 1985. Pages 554-60 deal with the atomic bombs and the surrender.

APPENDIX 1
AN ECONOMY CHANGED

The dates 1951 and 1993 were chosen to exhibit the Japanese economy soon after the end of the War and during the 1990s.

	1951 (post war)	1993(modern)
Farm Households (by 1000s of households)	6,099	2835
Car Production (by 1000s)	3	9379
Motor Vehicles owned (by 1000s)	414	64,498
Exports (in billions of yen)	489	40,202
Imports (in billions of yen)	737	26,826
Trade Balance (in millions of $)	–287	+141,514
%of students who advanced to upper secondary school	45.6	96.2

APPENDIX 2
NOTES FOR TEACHER PRESENTATION ON THE FIVE DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF THE POSTWAR JAPANESE ECONOMY

Stage One: Postwar Reconstruction (1945-57)

Stage Two: High Economic Growth (1958-73)

Stage Three: Moderate Economic Growth (1973-85)

Stage Four: The Appreciation of the Yen and the Bubble Economy (1985-90)

Stage Five: The Recession (1991-95)

(Based on the July 7, 1995 presentation by Mr. Takuma Kiso of the Fuji Institute, Tokyo, on "The Japanese Economy After the Second World War.")

Chronology

STAGE 1

1945	GNP = 40% of the pre-war level Steel production = 10% of the pre-war level
1947	Priority Production Formula = the priority supply of steel to the coal mining industry & the priority supply of the increased coal output to the steel industry
1949	The Dodge Line = a set of drastic anti-inflation measures The Balanced Budget and the single exchange rate of Y360 to the U.S. dollar – Recession
1950-51	The Korean War – "Special Procurements" – Boom
1952-53	Investment Boom – the Ceiling of the Balance of Payment
1956	The Economic White Paper for 1956: "The postwar period has already passed"

MAIN CHARACTERISTICS:

1. Big four industries: steel, electric power, coal mining and shipping
2. Expansion of domestic consumption from basic necessities to new product with new functions
3. Introduction of foreign technology and improvement of technology in synthetic fibers & petrochemicals
4. Government support for the modernization of equipment

STAGE 2

1959	Beginning of the Step-by-step Trade Liberalization
1960	The Income-doubling Program formulated Start of color TV broadcasting
1964	The Tokyo Olympic Games The bullet train began service
1966-70	The longest post war boom
1971	Nixon shock The Second Largest Production (37.2 billion units) of Passenger Cars in the World
1972	Reform of the Japanese Archipelago by Kakuei Tanaka
1973	Floating Exchange Rate System

REASONS FOR HIGH ECONOMIC GROWTH:

1. Social System: Democratic reform (the new Constitution, reform of education system & farm land); Economic reform (dismantling of *zaibatsu*, anti-monopoly Law)
2. Technological Progress: Heavy industries; Large-scale investment; Improved competitiveness
3. High Saving Financing Investment
4. Stable Dependence on Imports
5. Abundance of labor force; High education standard; diligence; small income disparity
6. Japanese-style management
7. Industrial Policies under the cooperation of the government and the industries.

The Dark Side of the Boom: the spread of environmental pollution; delays in the improvement of infrastructure.

STAGE 3

1973	The First Oil Crisis (October); Trilemma of Galloping Inflation, a Huge Balance of Payments Deficit and the Most Serious Postwar Recession. The Demand-Suppressing Policies.
1978	The Second Oil Crisis (November)
1980	The Largest Production of Passenger Cars in the World.

DOMESTIC REASONS FOR MODERATE ECONOMIC GROWTH:

1. Slowdown of the Potential Economic Growth and the Aggregate Demand; Japanese technology level catching up with U.S. and Europe; Fulfilled Consumption and Investment Demand
2. From Growth-Oriented Behavior to Welfare-Oriented Behavior
3. Limit of the Industrialization; Technology; Labor Force

FOREIGN REASONS FOR MODERATE ECONOMIC GROWTH

1. Floating Exchange Rate System
2. World-wide Inflation and the Oil Crises

1983-85	Exports-driven Economic Growth

STAGE 4

1985	The Plaza Accord; Appreciation of the *Yen*
1986-90	The "Bubble Economy"

STAGE 5

1991-93	The Recession (very serious)
1994-95	The Expansion (very moderate)

APPENDIX 3

POSTER OR TRANSPARENCY

Japan

Loyalty to company or corporate group

Little work mobility – traditionally stay with one company

Emphasis on group consensus

Various levels of position and status

America

Individualistic

Americans switch jobs 7-9 times in a life time.

Aggressive initiative is rewarded

Position and status have great variation

APPENDIX 4

CRITICAL THINKING ESSAY ON "JAPAN'S ECONOMIC MIRACLE."

Answer these questions in your essay:

1. How do the statistics illustrate Japan's climb out of the poverty and destruction of the Second World War?
2. How are Japanese attitudes on business different from most Americans' attitudes?
3. How could these differences contribute to the success of Japanese business since World War II?

APPENDIX 5
JAPANESE POINTS OF VIEW FIFTY YEARS LATER

These opinions were taken from 1995 Keizai Koho Center Fellows' group interviews with the news editor of ***The Chugoku Shimbun*** (a major Hiroshima daily newspaper) as well as representatives from Tokio Marine and Fire Insurance Company and Japanese social studies teachers from the Tokyo area. (The questions and answers were edited for brevity and clarity)

1. Q: What is the legacy of World War II after 50 years?

   A: The only legacy that there can be is the eventual abolition of nuclear weapons and commitment of all nations to world peace.

2. Q: Is there a solution to war?

   A: The only solution to conflict is negotiation. Japan should never go to war again.

3. Q: What is upsetting to Japanese concerning the attitudes of Americans?

   A: The Smithsonian's decision to redo the exhibit about the victims of the atomic bomb was hard to understand.

4. Q: Why do nations develop nuclear weapons?

   A: They do this at the expense of their own people.

5. Q: What is the attitude concerning the Emperor?

   A: He is a figurehead with no real power. The average Japanese does not concern himself or herself with the Emperor's opinions. The average Japanese also has no real feeling for the "national anthem."

APPENDIX 6
QUESTIONS FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Why do the Japanese have such revulsion for nuclear weapons 50 years after the end of the war?
2. Why is "peace" one of the most commonly-used words in Japan?
3. What do you think would be the attitude of the average Japanese toward a person who made his/her career in the Self Defense Force (military)? Why?
4. How has the Japanese attitude about the Emperor changed in the last fifty years?

TOPIC

Japan: The Best Place to Live?

by Patricia J. Morris
Ballard High School, Louisville, Kentucky

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  c. apply an understanding of culture as an integrated whole that explains the functions and interactions of language, literature, the arts, traditions, beliefs and values, and behavior patterns.

III. People, Places and Environments
  g. describe and compare how people create places that reflect culture, human needs, government policy, and current values and ideals as they design and build specialized buildings, neighborhoods, shopping centers, urban centers, industrial parks and the like.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Japan is considered one of the world's most successful countries, but is it a "best place to live?" Students will explore data, news clippings and articles to acquire geographic, economic and cultural data and analyze their interactions to determine what life is like in Tokyo and reach an assessment of the quality of life in the Japanese capital.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- identify significant geographical, economic and cultural features of Tokyo.
- describe how a pattern of living is an interrelationship and interaction of physical and cultural characteristics.

Attitude – Students will:

- consider the complexity of societal patterns.
- acknowledge differing value systems.

Skills – Students will:

- interpret articles and news data.
- analyze data and form conclusions.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 class sessions

RESOURCES NEEDED

- Appendix 1: The Best Place to Live? – a rating chart
- Appendix 2: Information Packet on Tokyo
- maps and an atlas of Japan

PROCEDURE

A. As students enter, have them write on the board one fact they know about living in Tokyo.

B. Have the class discuss the facts written on the board. Use these questions for discussion: Is this information correct? What does it suggest about life in Tokyo? What information might we need to determine the quality of life in Tokyo?

C. Divide the class into teams of two or three students each. Give each team a copy of Appendix 1 – The Best Place to Live rating chart and Appendix 2 – the information packet on Tokyo. Also, have maps and an atlas of Japan available in the class for reference.

D. Teams are to use the information packet to fill out the data portions of the chart. Be sure they understand that they are to record the data for each category (such as "location") before discussing and writing down their analysis of that category. In other words, they are to complete the Rating Chart from left to right.

E. After the "analyses" are complete, each category should be given a rating (1=poor, 2=fair, 3=good, 4=excellent). After completion of the ratings, teams should total each rating column at the bottom and then total across to reach a Grand Total. (A score of 40 is "perfect."). Teams should be prepared to defend their "ratings" of Tokyo to the class.

F. Instruct teams to discuss the Analysis Questions printed below and write their responses on the back of the chart (you may want to write the questions on the board).

Analysis Questions:

1. What do you think is the best thing about living in Tokyo?
2. What change(s) would you make in Tokyo to make it a better place to live?
3. What additional information would you need in order to make a more accurate evaluation of the quality of life in Tokyo?

G. Allow 1-2 minutes for team reports and then discuss analysis questions with the class.

ASSESSMENT

A. The rating charts themselves may be evaluated on the use of data and the quality of analysis.

B. The final discussion may be assessed using this question: Does the data support the conclusions being offered?

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Have students do a parallel comparative study of their own city using the "best place" rating chart and materials they gather from team research. Beyond this, working with a class in another school in another city and their similar analysis of their city – a third example – would have even more value.

B. Have students discuss other dimensions of "quality of life" (crime rate, pollution, political freedom, etc.) and where they might find evidence of such dimensions.

THE BEST PLACE TO LIVE?: A Quality of Life Rating

Date ______________

Class ______________

City:

Directions: Team members will write their names on the back of this first page, and the city's name in the box above.

1. Using the materials in the "Information Packet," fill in this chart. Put the data (the facts) in the first column.
2. After the first two columns are filled in, decide on your "Rating" for each category and place an X in one of the four "ratings" columns for each category.
4. Total these columns, and then total across at the bottom of the next page to get a grand total for this city.
5. Write the answers to the analysis questions the teacher gives you below your names on the back of this sheet, and use the back of the second sheet if necessary.

		RATINGS			
DATA (the facts)	**ANALYSIS (What does it mean?)**	**poor** (1)	**fair** (2)	**good** (3)	**excellent** (4)
1. LOCATION (exact/relative)					
2. GEOGRAPHIC FEATURES (size, landforms, etc.)					
3. HOUSING/LIVING COSTS					
4. WATER SYSTEMS					

CITY

DATA	ANALYSIS	RATINGS			
		poor	fair	good	excellent
5. TRANSPORTATION (roads, trains, etc.)					
6. NATURAL DISASTERS					
7. EDUCATION					
8. CULTURE AND ENTERTAINMENT					
9. BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT					
10. EMPLOYMENT					

< GRAND TOTAL	subtotals >				

Panel issues recommendations on relocating Japan's capital

Associated Press

TOKYO — After decades of discussion, Japan is thinking seriously about moving its capital from crowded, expensive Tokyo.

A government advisory panel Wednesday issued the most specific recommendations yet, saying the new capital should be within 180 miles of Tokyo and be ready for business by 2010.

A decision is still far off. A neutral organization will be set up to select a site within two years, and Parliament has to approve the final plans.

The idea of a new capital has been discussed since the early 1960s, when rapid economic growth caused a mass movement of people from rural areas to the capital.

Tokyo is the world's most expensive city, and many people spend four hours a day commuting.

"As a capital, Tokyo is reaching its limits in various areas, including ... its overcrowded population and its weakness to earthquakes," the panel said in its report Wednesday.

> Tokyo is the world's most expensive city, and many people spend four hours a day commuting.

Parliament decided in 1990 to study relocating the capital to alleviate crowding in the Tokyo metropolitan area, home to nearly 30 million people — one-quarter of Japan's population.

Most proposals have envisioned the new capital in a rural area or near a small regional city rather than in another metropolis.

The panel Wednesday recommended the 180-mile limit so people could reach the new capital from Tokyo in 90 minutes aboard a "bullet train." It also said there should be an international airport less than 40 minutes away, accessible by rail.

The new capital would be home to an estimated 600,000 people, along with Parliament, government ministries and the Supreme Court, the panel said. Tokyo would remain a center of business, finance and culture.

Juichi Tanaka of the National Land Agency said it would cost at least $140 billion to buy 36 square miles of land and build government facilities.

Opponents of relocation cite the cost at a time of large budget deficits, and say the need for a new capital may be passing because Tokyo's population is no longer rising.

The panel said that in addition to relieving crowding, moving the capital would provide an impetus to trim Japan's large bureaucracy, which has been blamed for holding back economic growth.

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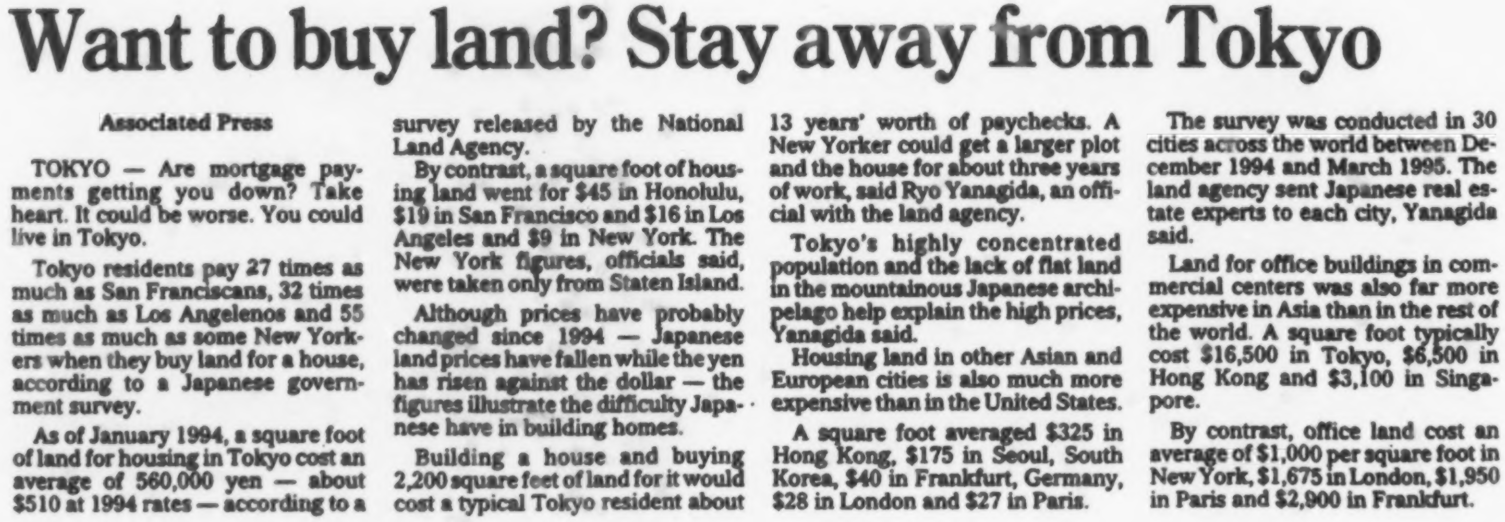

Want to buy land? Stay away from Tokyo

Associated Press

TOKYO — Are mortgage payments getting you down? Take heart. It could be worse. You could live in Tokyo.

Tokyo residents pay 27 times as much as San Franciscans, 32 times as much as Los Angelenos and 55 times as much as some New Yorkers when they buy land for a house, according to a Japanese government survey.

As of January 1994, a square foot of land for housing in Tokyo cost an average of 560,000 yen — about $510 at 1994 rates — according to a survey released by the National Land Agency.

By contrast, a square foot of housing land went for $45 in Honolulu, $19 in San Francisco and $16 in Los Angeles and $9 in New York. The New York figures, officials said, were taken only from Staten Island.

Although prices have probably changed since 1994 — Japanese land prices have fallen while the yen has risen against the dollar — the figures illustrate the difficulty Japanese have in building homes.

Building a house and buying 2,200 square feet of land for it would cost a typical Tokyo resident about 13 years' worth of paychecks. A New Yorker could get a larger plot and the house for about three years of work, said Ryo Yanagida, an official with the land agency.

Tokyo's highly concentrated population and the lack of flat land in the mountainous Japanese archipelago help explain the high prices, Yanagida said.

Housing land in other Asian and European cities is also much more expensive than in the United States.

A square foot averaged $325 in Hong Kong, $175 in Seoul, South Korea, $40 in Frankfurt, Germany, $28 in London and $27 in Paris.

The survey was conducted in 30 cities across the world between December 1994 and March 1995. The land agency sent Japanese real estate experts to each city, Yanagida said.

Land for office buildings in commercial centers was also far more expensive in Asia than in the rest of the world. A square foot typically cost $16,500 in Tokyo, $6,500 in Hong Kong and $3,100 in Singapore.

By contrast, office land cost an average of $1,000 per square foot in New York, $1,675 in London, $1,950 in Paris and $2,900 in Frankfurt.

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In Japan, everything is centralized in Tokyo. Discussions are being held about whether the nation's capital should be relocated to somewhere else to separate government and business, or whether certain central government functions should be transferred to the local level.

TOKYO NOW

Tokyo, formerly known as Edo, was once said to be a place for barbarians. Now Tokyo seems to have the best and the most of almost everything in Japan; politically, economically, and culturally.

- The Supreme Court, the Diet (Japan's Parliament), and the Government Ministries and Agencies are all located in the Kasumigaseki area right in the center of Tokyo.
- Big businesses are also in Tokyo. In fact, Japan is one of the few countries in the world — including England, Spain, Malaysia, and Mexico — where the headquarters of the five biggest corporations are located in the capital city.
- Tokyo has wealth. The average annual income of a Tokyo resident was $29,814* in 1989, 9.5% higher than the previous year. This figure was 2.25 times higher than in Okinawa, and was the highest among all other cities in Japan.
- The Gross Metropolitan Product of Tokyo was $550.3 billion* in 1989, exceeding the Gross Domestic Production (GDP) of Canada, which ranked seventh among OECD member countries (The Economic Planning Agency, 1989).
- The Tokyo Stock Market is one of the largest stock markets in the world, with an average daily transaction volume of 500 million shares in 1990. This figure was only one sixth of the 1988 volume, before Japan's bubble economy burst.
- The office space occupancy in central Tokyo has increased by 150% during the past five years (The National Land Agency, 1990).
- Tokyo is the center of Japan's mass media. More than 70% of the total volume of information in TV programming, newspapers, radio, books, and magazines is produced in Tokyo and distributed to the rest of the nation (The Ministry of Telecommunications).
- About half of Japan's cultural institutions such as theaters and galleries are located in Tokyo and consequently about half of all professional concerts are held there.
- Above all, Tokyo has people. About 26% of the total population of Japan lives in the greater Tokyo area, on only 3.6% of the nation's land. Central Tokyo alone has a population of more than 12 million, which is almost equal to the total population of Australia. Of Japan's total population growth during the past five years, about 60% occurred in Tokyo, and the number continues to increase.

OVERLY CENTRALIZED

Tokyo has everything, including many problems.

- Because Japan's administrative authorities are centralized in Tokyo, most local issues have to be taken to the central government for consideration, if not approval. The bureaucracy has become a big barrier to various local government activities. For example, a group of small town residents living in public houses built by the central government thirty-eight years ago petitioned to purchase the houses, but their request was turned down. This was because the Ministry of Construction's policy was to replace these old houses with high-rise buildings. The policy was applied nationwide, even in small towns that are suffering from shrinking populations. In another case a local city planned to build a subway line under a city-owned road, but because of a technicality, they had to wait for three and a half years before they got permission from the central government (Oct., 22 & 23, 1992; Asahi).

- Because Tokyo has cars, it also has traffic jams. The economic loss because of traffic congestion is estimated to average $8.5 million** per day (The Metropolitan Police Department, 1992).
- Because Tokyo is too crowded, land prices have gone up and most people cannot afford to buy homes.
- Because few attractive jobs are available in local areas, more than 70% of university graduates start working in Tokyo despite their wishes to return to their home towns.
- Because many people work, but do not live in Tokyo, people have to commute. In 1990, more than 3.6 million workers and students, an increase of 20% since 1985, commuted to Tokyo, and 83% of them spent more than one hour just getting to work. During the morning rush hour, commuters are packed into trains and subways that exceed passenger capacity by 270% (The Management and Coordination Agency and The National Land Agency, 1993).
- Because businesses and people produce waste at the rate of 8,400 tons per day, carried to one of the last dump sites in Tokyo by 1,300 dump trucks per hour, Japan's capital will soon be filled with garbage.
- One big issue which has been considered seriously by experts is the possibility of a large-scale earthquake occurring in Tokyo. An interim report compiled in June 1988 by the Natural Disaster Prevention Committee predicted that an earthquake with a possible force of seven on the Richter scale might hit the southern part of the Kanto area, which includes Tokyo.
- According to a survey by the Mainichi Shimbun (Jan. 4, 1993), 82% of Japanese would not live in Tokyo if given a choice.

In short, Tokyo has one big problem — the city is too congested. To ease this problem, recent discussions have been focused on whether the national government should be relocated, or whether the central government should give more authority to local governments.

(*$1=¥142.82 in 1989)
(**$1=¥125)

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WHITE PAPER: TOKYO, A MAGNET FOR PEOPLE, SERVICES

Tokyo has historically been a focal point for people and industry, and after a brief hiatus in the 1970s the capital city has started to grow again. The Economic Planning Agency analyzes this phenomenon and its implications in the 1992 "White Paper on the Life of the Nation." The paper recognizes that the postwar concentration of functions within Tokyo was very effective in boosting economic development and raising living standards. However, the influx of people into the greater Tokyo area has also caused a variety of housing, commuting, and other problems. The highlights:

Edo, present day Tokyo, had a population of one million in the mid-Edo period (1603-1868). Its population surpassed that of the Kyoto region — where the court had been located — at the time of the Meiji Restoration in 1868, and rose rapidly thereafter. Immediately before World War II there were 7.4 million people living in Tokyo, accounting for 10 percent of the country's entire population.

With the outbreak of war, the population of Tokyo and other major cities fell, as large numbers of people moved to rural areas. Many returned to the cities after the war's end, however, and by 1955 Tokyo's population had recovered to its prewar level. Throughout the subsequent period of rapid economic growth that began in the mid-1950s, major urban centers absorbed the populations of surrounding areas. By 1970 the number of people living in and around major cities had reached 14 percent of the country's total.

The tendency of the population to concentrate in Tokyo and other major cities — creating the twin problems of urban overcrowding and rural depopulation — was reversed during the first oil crisis in 1973-1975 when Japan's economic growth rate dropped from 10 percent to 5 percent a year. As a result the population scattered in the latter half of the 1970s. This trend was short-lived however. By the mid-1980s the effects of the oil crisis had passed and, against the backdrop of a weak yen and a strong dollar, the Japanese economy quickly recovered. Rising exports stimulated the growth of industries processing and assembling electrical equipment, automobiles and other goods. Regional economies also took a turn for the better, particularly in the Tokai, Tohuku and inner Kanto regions where industries of this sort had concentrated.

As manufacturing expanded into higher-value products and information and services became more important, there was a renewed influx into the Tokyo area. There was also an outflux from the Osaka and Nagoya areas, leaving Tokyo as the sole magnet for people, goods and services.

Greater Tokyo: world's largest metropolis

The phenomenal economic growth of the postwar period took place within the context of close cooperation between the government and the private sector, with the emphasis on industrial policy. In order to facilitate regular contacts with central government agencies, many companies located their offices in Tokyo. As Tokyo's importance grew, more and more firms followed suit. By the mid-1970s it was predicted that advances in information technology would offset the influx of companies to the capital. In fact, the increasing importance of gathering information informally made it even more vital to locate in Tokyo. A progressively international outlook and rapid growth in the finance and information industries further exacerbated this trend.

At the same time an abundant supply of young labor throughout the postwar period made feasible the Japanese system of lifetime employment and seniority-based wages. That gave rise to the "salaryman," a white collar worker with a very strong sense of belonging to the company. In the typical salaryman family, the head of the house devotes himself entirely to his firm. The Japanese employment system provides stability of work and pay.

Conditions in major companies are known to be generally better than in smaller firms. In turn, higher social prestige is conferred on those who hold important posts in large corporations. Competition for jobs with the best firms is intense. Postwar economic and fiscal reforms have succeeded in creating one of the world's most equal societies; serving to strengthen the feeling that the opportunity for such success is open to everyone — a factor that has only made this competition yet more intense. These factors combine to attract young workers to big companies, and hence, jobs in the capital city. The concentration of people, economic and cultural activity and information in the Tokyo area has combined to raise land prices dramatically. This in turn has lowered the standard of living for Tokyo area residents, undermining employees' ability to obtain housing and forcing them to commute for

(see page 6)

long distances, in addition to creating a residential vacuum in the city center.

With a population of 123.6 million people, the density per square mile in Japan is one of the highest in the world. This is the equivalent to half the population of the U.S. living in an area slightly larger than the state of Montana. As a result, in cities such as Tokyo the physical limits for providing a natural environment and basic infrastructure have almost been reached.

Today, the population of the greater Tokyo area is over 30 million — one-fourth of the nation's entire population. That also makes it the largest metropolis in the world. The White Paper concludes that under a system of values that places working life above all, employees have resigned themselves to Tokyo's difficult housing market in order to be assured of stable jobs. The lifetime employment system means low job mobility, making it difficult to move to another area for the sake of better living conditions. This only aggravates the concentration of people and jobs in the capital. The other major cities with populations over a million are: Nagoya, Sapporo, Kyoto, Kobe, Fukuoka, Kawasaki, Hiroshima, Osaka, Yokohama and Kitakyushu.

■ A WINDOW ON TOKYO

Tokyo is the largest city in Japan. In the 18th century when Tokyo was still called Edo, it was already the world's largest city with a population of more than one million. Today the capital of Japan is the nation's largest city with a population of 11.9 million in 1990, or nearly 10 percent of Japan's total population. The Greater Tokyo Metropolitan Region holds 25 percent of Japan's total population.

Daytime population (1985): 14 million. Nighttime population (1985):11.82 million. Persons per square kilometer: 5,506 (the national average is 326 persons per square kilometer).

Tokyo is made up of many smaller areas. The city is a vast self-governing unit consisting of 23 special wards, 26 cities, 7 towns and 8 villages. The land area, 2,182 square kilometers, is shaped somewhat like a fish and stretches about 90 kilometers east and west and 25 kilometers north and south. The Greater Tokyo Metropolitan Region consists of Tokyo and three neighboring prefectures.

Tokyo offers many centers for children; 2.29 million children lived in Tokyo in 1990 or about 19.2 percent of the total population. The city operated 1,600 nurseries caring for approximately 134,000 children, 546 children's halls and 1,060 children's clubs which serve children after school hours.

SCHOOLS		# OF STUDENTS
Elementary	1,480	709,142
Junior High	857	425,506
High School	467	529,740
Special Ed. Schools	66	8,371

Tokyo's population is aging. Those aged 65 and over is expected to reach 14.9 percent in the year 2000. There were 1.215 million people aged 65 and over in Tokyo in 1990 or about 10.39 percent of the population. In 1972, the city opened the Geriatric Hospital and established Japan's first General Institute of Geriatrics to study problems of aging and geriatric diseases in a wide range of fields. In 1984, the institute signed an accord with the National Institute on Aging in the U.S. for research cooperation and in 1986 it opened a second Geriatric Hospital.

"White Paper: Tokyo, A Magnet for People, Services" and "A Window on Tokyo" are reproduced by permission of The Japan Information and Cultural Center, which is located at 1155 21st Street, N.W. (between L and M Sts.), Washington, D.C., 20036. Tel: (202) 939-6900.

TOPIC

Working Conditions and Work Ethic

by Elaine D. Pierson
Athens Area High School, Athens, Pennsylvania

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

V. Individuals, Groups and Institutions
  g. analyze the extent to which groups and institutions meet individual needs and promote the common good in contemporary and historical settings.

VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption
  f. compare how values and beliefs influence economic decisions in different societies.

IX. Global Connections
  h. illustrate how individual behaviors and decisions connect with global systems.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson explores the ideas of working conditions and work ethic. It asks students to compare and contrast the working conditions (including salary and benefits) offered to employees of a Japanese corporation (Mazda) with those offered to employees of several U.S. corporations chosen by the students. It asks students to draw conclusions about the working conditions in each corporation and to explore the connections between working conditions and work ethic.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- distinguish between working conditions and work ethic.
- identify the working conditions in a Japanese corporation and a U. S. corporation.
- draw conclusions and compare working conditions in the several corporations, as to the effect such working conditions have on the work ethic.

Attitude – Students will:

- consider the effect that working conditions have on the motivation of the employee.

Skills – Students will:

- collect relevant data.
- construct hypotheses based on comparative data.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 class sessions, plus outside research time

RESOURCES NEEDED

- Appendix 1 – A Profile of Working Conditions and Benefits
- Appendix 2 – Mazda Corporation: Working Conditions and Welfare Benefits
- Appendix 3 – The Japanese Work Ethic
- Teacher's own information on potential U.S. corporations for students to research.

PROCEDURE

A. During the first class session, introduce the ideas of (1) working conditions and (2) work ethic. Ask students what the terms mean to them and use the ensuing discussion to be sure they understand both concepts and can distinguish between them.

B. Explain to students the importance of examining working conditions in representative corporations in the United States and Japan in order to gain clues into the work ethic of the people in each culture.

C. Explain that students will, in teams, research the working conditions and employee benefits of a U.S. corporation. Present possible choices of U.S. corporations to contact for information. Student teams may choose their corporations, but each choice must have teacher approval.

D. Organize students into four to eight teams. Provide each member of the class with a copy of Appendix 1 – A Profile of Working Conditions and Benefits. Review Appendix 1 with the class to be sure that they understand the kind of information they will need to obtain from the corporations they have selected. Discuss possible means of contacting the corporations and getting the information.

E. Distribute Appendix 2 – Mazda Corporation: Working Conditions and Welfare Benefits and compare the information in it with the information asked for in Appendix 1. Help students to understand that they need, if at all possible, to get the *same kind of data* so that comparisons are possible.

F. Once each team has made its selection and obtained teacher approval, students must contact that corporation for the information needed. Here a time limit must be given by which all teams will have obtained all the necessary information from their corporations.

G. Several weeks will need to elapse at this point while the teams make their contacts and collect their data. Little classroom time will be needed until they are finished, other than coaching and assisting the teams in their jobs. As the teams begin to finish their research, assign dates for team presentations to the class.

H. During the second class session, the teams will present their findings as outlined in Appendix 1. Next, direct a discussion to the similarities and differences between the American corporations.

I. During the third class session, follow the oral presentations with a discussion of the similarities and differences between the Japanese Mazda Corporation and the several corporations researched in the United States, and what effect those conditions have on the motivation of the employees with regard to work ethic.

J. Ask students to consider the relationship between working conditions (including benefits) and employees' motivation, both in the United States and Japan. Then ask students if they think these factors may affect the work ethic of Japanese workers or of U.S. workers.

K. Conclude the lesson by sharing some generally held observations on the Japanese work ethic. Ask students to compare these with their own observation on the U.S. work ethic. Appendix 3 – The Japanese Work Ethic can be read by the student or shared orally by the teacher.

ASSESSMENT

A. Evaluate the oral presentations using factors such as thoroughness of information presented and delivery of the information to the class.

B. Evaluate individual's understanding based on an assigned essay covering the topic.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Further understanding from an historical perspective can be achieved by obtaining a history of the working conditions from the origin of the companies selected.

B. Students could research the cost of living in each country, being careful to allow for differences in currency value, and examining whether the working conditions are acceptable in relation to the standard of living in each country.

TEACHER RESOURCES

Mazda Corporation Annual Report 1995 (March), pp. 21-23. The head office address is: Mazda Corporation, 3-1 Shinchi, Fucho-cho, Aki-gun, Hiroshima 730-91, Japan.

Mazda in Brief (March 1995 edition). Published by International Public Relations Department, Corporate Communications Division, Mazda Motor Corporation, at the above address. Copies of this booklet may be obtained by contacting Mazda Information Bureau, 400 Renaissance Center, Detroit, MI 48243; tel: (313) 393-3315.

APPENDIX 1

A PROFILE OF WORKING CONDITIONS AND BENEFITS INFORMATION FOR STUDENTS TO OBTAIN FROM COMPANIES IN THE U.S.

1a. What is the average monthly wage of a non-management worker?

1b. If bonuses are given, what is the average bonus of a non-management worker?

2. What are the normal working hours, per day and per week?

3a. What are the paid holidays for workers?

3b. How much vacation do workers get each year?

4a. What kind of retirement allowances are available to workers?

4b. Do workers pay into Social Security?

4c. Do workers receive special travel or vacation benefits?

4d. How much maternity or paternity leave are workers allowed? Is it paid or unpaid?

4e. Do workers receive paid or unpaid leave to take care of sick family members? How much?

4f. At what age *may* workers retire? At what age *must* workers retire? Are retired workers sometimes re-employed for special needs?

4g. i. Does the company have a clinic or hospital for the use of employees?

  ii. Is there company housing for workers or assistance for them in buying their own homes?

  iii. Is there a company discount store for workers?

  iv. Are recreational facilities maintained for your employees?

5. Are low-cost box lunches available for your employees?

6. Is there a company cafeteria or restaurant for your employees?

7. Are loans available to your employees to purchase homes?

8. Are loans available to your employees to purchase automobiles?

9. Is health insurance offered to your employees? What is the coverage? What portion of the cost is paid by the employee?

10. What kinds of training programs are offered to workers who wish to get promotions?

11. What kinds of training programs are offered to new workers?

16. Company Life

(1) Mazda Corporation Working Conditions and Welfare Benefits

1. 1994 Model Wage

   a) Monthly Average Wage* Approx. ¥352,000

   * Average below assistant managers

   This figure includes basic salary (Sept. 1994), overtime pay, taxes and other allowances such as traffic allowance, but excludes bonus.

   b) Bonus*

   1994 Summer Approx. ¥600,000 (Basic monthly salary × 2.08)

   1994 Winter Approx. ¥600,000 (Basic monthly salary × 2.08)

   *Average below assistant managers

2. 1994 Working Hours

   8-hour per day, 40-hour per week

3. Holidays

   a) Holidays

   Mazda has 121 holidays a year, consisting of Saturdays, Sundays, national holidays and long holidays in May (5–11 days), August (5–11 days) and at the New Year (5–11 days).

   b) Paid Holidays

   In addition to the above, 15–20 paid holidays are given per year according to the length of service. Paid holidays may be carried over to the following year up to a maximum of 40 days.

4. Welfare Conditions and Benefits to Workers

   a) Retirement Allowances

   When an employee retires at will or is discharged, he or she may receive a retirement allowance. This is calculated according to the specified wage for retirement allowance and length of service.

   b) Welfare Pension

   Welfare pension insurance is a compulsory government program. In addition to the insurance program Mazda voluntarily offers the Mazda Welfare pension fund. The present premium rate is 3.8 percent of the standard monthly salary and is borne by the employer (approx. 58% of the premium) and employee (approx. 42%).

   c) Long Service Travel Present

   According to their length of service at Mazda Motor Corporation, employees 45 years of age and above are given a choice of one of the following travel presents and they may be accompanied by one family member.

Length of Service:	Destination:
10 and 15 years	Short-distance domestic travel
20 years	Okinawa
25 years	Hokkaido or Okinawa
30 years	Hong Kong, Guam, Hokkaido or Okinawa
more than 35 years	Hawaii, Hokkaido or Okinawa

d) Additional Maternity Leave
Regular maternity leave consists of 6 weeks prior to birth and 8 weeks after the birth. Additionally, employees may take time off from work to care for a baby of less than 12 months until the child reaches the age of one year, with a guaranteed job when he/she returns.

e) Nursing Leave
Employees may take up to 12 months off from work to care for a sick family member, with a guaranteed job upon return.

f) Re-employment System "Senior Family System"
Mazda has introduced a system to re-hire employees after they reach the retirement age of 60. Senior employees can be employed on a year-to-year basis up to the age of 65.

g) Welfare Facilities

i) Hospital
The Mazda Hospital was opened in July 1961 on the company premises to provide medical services to Mazda employees. The hospital is also open to the general public.
There is a staff of over 320 working in 16 different medical departments. An average of 1,000 outpatients a day receive medical care, and the hospital has beds for 300 inpatients.

ii) Company Residence or Dormitory
It is company policy to encourage employees to have their own houses by giving them financial aid. However, for those who have just married or who have been transferred recently, Mazda has company residences for about 2,500 families. It also has accomodations for about 5,000 single workers who come from distant areas or who have been transferred recently.

iii) Supermarkets on the Company Premises
Mazda has some shops on the company premises where employees and their families may buy various goods (food, books, electrical appliances, etc.) at low prices.

iv) Sports Facilities

Gymnasium	Open year round
Swimming Pool	Open year round
Sports Ground & Facilities	Open year round

5. Luncheon Catering Service Center

Employees may order a lunch box from the catering center on the company premises at a low price.

6. Cafeteria

Mazda has 10 cafeterias on the company premises, where employees may enjoy light meals at low prices.

7. Loan System for House/Land Purchase or House Construction

8. Private Car Purchase Loan System

9. Health Insurance System (Stipulated by Law)

Contribution	Company: 5.4% of monthly salary Employees: 3.1% of monthly salary
Refund	Employees: 90% of medical expenses Employees' families: 70% of medical expenses

(2) Training/Educational Facilities

Mazda Motor Corporation believes that people are very important assets and the company's future depends largely on people's potential and capability. With this in mind, Mazda Motor Corporation established training and educational facilities to generate an environment of opportunity where employees' individual abilities could be further developed.

Mazda Education and Training Center:

Established:	February 1979
Location:	Hiroshima City
Programs:	• variety of programs systematically designed for managerial-level employees, office employees, and plant employees • programs for employees assigned to overseas work • programs initiated and directed by divisions/departments according to their needs, etc.

Mazda Technical College:

Mazda Technical College, an inter-industry vocational technical institute, was established with the aim of nurturing future expert technicians at Mazda plants through a two-year program in production mechanical engineering.

Established:	April 1988
Location:	Hiroshima City
Applicants:	(1) New graduates from senior high school (2) Mazda employees who have completed high school and are under 23 years of age

From *Mazda in Brief,* March 1995 edition (see Teacher Resources on p.104). Reprinted by permission.

THE JAPANESE WORK ETHIC

Today the Japanese have a reputation for being hard workers. This trait seems to have been a part of Japanese culture and values as far back in history as we can identify such things. It may have something to do with being a society that has depended on the cultivation of rice for its survival. The typical village was highly organized to tend the rice paddies and plant and harvest the crop in ways that demanded not only a high degree of cooperation, but a lot of hard work.

Hard work, as a major value of Japanese culture, certainly has a lot to do with the importance that a Japanese individual places on the groups he or she is part of. This famous group loyalty commonly includes putting the interests of the group above one's personal interests and ambitions. It means being willing to cooperate with other members and being able to accept the decisions of the group with enthusiasm. It means avoiding any situation that might embarrass or shame other members of the group. The group may be the family. It may be one's school. It frequently is one's employer-firm, and particularly the work team one belongs to within that firm. It is hard for more individual-oriented Westerners to understand the strength of this Japanese group loyalty.

The very important sense of loyalty to the group explains much about how hard the Japanese work. If you find your success in the success of your group, then hard work for that group is part of that loyalty. Letting the group down because of your lack of effort would be a major disgrace.

Japanese office and management employees typically work long hours and then spend what is left of their evenings with their fellow workers, eating and drinking together in restaurants, bars, or night clubs. Today the majority of companies, including Mazda, have an average work week of five days. Although in the past some companies required a half day of work on Saturday, by 1993 this was true for only 1.1% of the companies. Some office workers do not have an established workday with set hours. The Japanese man who works for a large company is guaranteed many benefits and will probably not be laid off unless he does something truly disastrous, but he will be expected to put in long hours, and may not have much time to spend with his family.

Until recently most Japanese teenagers went to school half the day every Saturday, as well as the five days familiar to American students. Currently, however, Japanese students only attend school two Saturdays per month.

Japanese workers in large companies earn vacation time much the same way that many American workers do. Many Japanese workers, however, do not take all of the vacation days they have earned. This is partly because they feel that taking all that vacation may be "letting down" the company or work group, or simply "not doing their share." In recent years, the Japanese government and many employers have made efforts to encourage employees to take more vacation time.

Japanese who work for small family-owned companies do not have the benefits that "salary-men" in large firms do. They frequently do not have paid vacation time. They still tend to work long hours if there is work to do. The owner-families of such firms must sometimes work very long hours to keep the business going. The 40-hour work week is not a standard practice in Japan.

Japanese believe, to a remarkable degree, that an attitude of determination and will power, combined with hard work, will overcome almost any obstacle. This belief encourages workers not only to work hard, but also to work with care and skill. The quality of work produced allows many Japanese firms to dispense with the elaborate inspections of "quality control" that are used by many North American industries. The Japanese worker does his or her work quickly and carefully and inspects it personally. To make a mistake that resulted in a faulty product would be to betray one's group.

Japanese workers not only work long and hard for the company, but also tend to do so with visible enthusiasm. The employer is frequently seen as one's friend and the company is regarded almost as one's family. Some Japanese companies' employees gather at the beginning of each work day for calisthenics and to sing loudly the company song. They may even listen to short speeches and chant company slogans before going to their work stations and beginning the day's work.

The Japanese, then, are among the world's most diligent workers. Japanese describe themselves as "diligent." Some Japanese workers tend to believe that American workers are a bit careless and sometimes lazy. Older Japanese frequently believe that their children and grandchildren have become "lazy," lost their enthusiasm for work, take too much time off, and are overly-fond of leisure-time activities. Compared with the older Japanese tradition, the work ethic of younger Japanese probably is weaker. But compared with most of the rest of the world, the Japanese, including the younger ones, are still among the world's hardest workers.

TOPIC

The Automobile in Japan

by Michael D. Schultz
Chinguacousy Secondary School, Brampton, Ontario

NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

I. Culture
  g. construct reasoned judgements about specific cultural responses to persistent human issues.

VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption
  i. distinguish between the domestic and global economic systems, and explain how the two interact.

VIII. Science, Technology, and Society
  a. identify and describe current examples of the interaction and interdependence of science, technology, and society (in Japan).

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

Japan is known in North America for its automotive exports, but automobiles have a somewhat different meaning to Japan itself. This lesson focuses on the auto industry as a major part of the Japanese economy and on some of the roles of the automobile itself in Japanese society and culture.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- cite data to demonstrate the importance of auto manufacturing to the Japanese economy.
- identify reasons for the growth in domestic sales of Japanese automobiles.
- compare the place of the automobile in Japanese and North American societies.

Attitude – Students will:

- understand the value of statistics in supporting a conclusion.

Skills – Students will:

- analyze statistical data.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 class sessions.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- overhead projector or chalk board
- Appendices (provided with this lesson):
  1. Automotive Plants in Japan (overhead or enlargement)
  2. Japanese and U.S. Automobile Manufacturing Companies (overhead or copies)
  3. Results of Student Calculations (for teacher use)
  4. Who Makes Japanese Cars? / Automobile Production in Japan (copies for students)
  5. Imported Passenger Cars in Japan 1990–1992 (overhead or copies)
  6. Persons Per Vehicle in Selected Nations (copies for students)

PROCEDURE

A. Introduce the lesson by explaining to students that the Japanese word for automobile is *jidosha*. Place the word *jidosha* on the board. Use it to create a "mind map" exercise with the class. The objective is to identify all the occupations they can think of that are related to the automobile industry. Branch out from the main word as you brainstorm. (Examples such as car sales, tire manufacturer should easily come to mind.) It would be useful for students to conduct a search through their local yellow pages to see which of these occupations are located in their community.

B. Use the transparency of Appendix 1 – Automotive Plants in Japan to show students the concentration of manufacturers in Japan. Have students make generalizations about the impact of these companies in the world (e.g. do they have a Japanese producer in or near their own community? not all these manufacturers make cars – some are truck producers; the industry is spread throughout Japan, predominantly in the southeast and at key port locations etc.)

C. Divide the class into small groups. Using the data in Appendix 2 – Japanese and U.S. Automobile Manufacturing Companies, have students total the sales, profit, and numbers of employees for the Japanese automobile manufacturers, Toyota, Nissan, Honda, Mitsubishi and Mazda. (The answers are in Appendix 3.) Then have students make parallel totals for the U.S. auto producers, General Motors, Ford and Chrysler. (The answers are in Appendix 3.)

D. Based on the results of their calculations in step C, above, groups of students should further calculate (a) profit as a % of sales (b) profit per employee (c) sales per employee. (The answers are in Appendix 3.) Help students to understand the meaning of these statistics, then help them draw conclusions from them.

E. Ask the whole class to consider the information in Appendix 4 – Who Makes Japanese Cars? and Automobile Production in Japan.

F. Pose the question, "How important is the automobile industry to Japan's economy?" and ask for students' conclusions. They may wish to consider such angles as the geographical spread of auto manufacturing sites in Japan and the percentage of the Japanese work force involved with the auto industry. This activity could be done as a short-essay.

G. Indicate that the impact of car manufacturing is of somewhat similar importance in Japan's culture to that in North American culture (it is important to note, however, that Japan has an efficient, well-used rail system, so individual use of the car differs from North America). Ask the class, in a Socratic fashion, the following questions: What does the automobile provide us with? (a form of transportation, independence, extends our economic and recreational territory, etc.) How does driving in Japan differ from North America? (ideas such as: more mountainous terrain, less space for highways, less space for parking, different fuel and vehicle costs, etc.)

H. Give the students the following information on the development of Japanese highways:

	1975	*1985*	*1993*
Total length of roads	1519 km.	3555 km.	5410 km.
Percentage of roads paved	31%	58%	72%

(By comparison, 92% of the roads in the United States were paved in 1993.) Ask students if these figures refute or support this statement: The Japanese improved their roads between 1970 and 1990.

I. Give the whole class the following information: Three factors that became evident in Japan in the 1960s:

(a) The Japanese improved their roads and their overall infrastructure (see F, above);

(b) The Japanese experienced a rapid growth of income to a point where many families could afford automobiles;

(c) The Japanese developed a domestic automotive industry geared to the specific needs of the domestic market (small-sized vehicles, etc.)

Ask students to make some hypotheses about the effects of these developments. Point out that one effect was that private automobiles have been one of the fastest growing segments of passenger transportation in Japan.

J. Many German imported cars (Volkswagen, Porsche, BMW etc.) are found in Japan. Place the data from Appendix 5 – Imported Passenger Cars in Japan in 1990–1992 on the board or an overhead. Ask students to notice the imports market share for North American cars, for European cars, and for German cars in particular. (Be sure students know the meaning of market share.) Ask students to draw conclusions from these data. (They suggest that German cars, particularly luxury cars, have been marketed well in Japan; the U.S. is gaining market share, etc.)

K. The automobile has become one measure of a country's standard of living. In Appendix 6 – Persons Per Vehicle, the number of automobiles in relation to the population is presented nation by nation. Give students this information on a handout. Ask students to analyze the figures and suggest reasons why the countries are ranked as they are. (Reasons might include: developing countries have fewer roads and cars; countries at the top of the list have a higher standard of living; countries in which women are in the work force are ranked higher; poor countries rank lower, etc.) You may wish to have small teams of students examine tables of nations' literacy rates, per capita incomes, and/or infant mortality rates in order to look for correlations.

L. In Japan, self-service gas stations are not popular. Many consumers are used to having a variety of extensive servicing by waiting attendants when going in for a fill-up. Ask students to compare this to service in a North American service station. In class discussion, probe for reasons for the difference between the service levels in Japanese or North American service stations. (Push students to look for economic as well as cultural reasons for the differences.)

M. North American high school students frequently have access to cars. This is not generally the case for 16–18 year olds in Japan. Present and discuss with students the following facts about Japan:

- Parking space of any kind is limited in urban areas.
- The minimum age for driving cars is 18.
- The minimum age for driving motorcycles is 16.
- Many schools do not allow students to drive or park their cars at school.
- Students cannot afford the price and maintenance of a car. (Some have after school jobs, but far fewer than in North America.)
- Insurance and licensing is expensive, as in North America.
- Bicycles are cheaper and racks and shelters are provided for bikes. (Bicycles are popular in Japan as they are pollution free, get around crowded areas easily, and are reliable transportation. Biking in North America is often seen more as "recreational" than "necessary.")
- In North America, automobiles signify freedom and individuality; they do not seem to signify the same values in Japanese culture. (It is interesting to note that car colors are usually conservative in Japan: blues, whites, blacks etc.)

Next, help students to understand how these factors do not promote ownership of cars by teenagers. Teachers might want to explain that there are few older cars in Japan due to the high cost of licensing older vehicles. Conversely, in North America, there are relatively more older vehicles, and these often prove to be a cheap source of transportation for teenagers.

N. Have students write essays on one of these topics:

(a) Present arguments for or against this statement: The automobile is more important to Japanese culture than to North American culture. (This could also be done as a debate.)

(b) The Place of the Automobile in North American and Japanese Societies: A Comparison.

ASSESSMENT

A. Ask students, in small groups, or as a whole class, to list some ways in which science and technology have influenced Japanese culture, as evidenced by material in this lesson. Then ask them to list ways in which Japanese culture and geography have influenced Japanese technology as evidenced by material in this lesson.

B. Evaluate the essay (Step N, above) in terms of relationships shown between science, technology, and culture.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Using data from *Japan 1996: An International Comparison*, have students chart the percentage of autos manufactured in each nation listed which remain in that nation as domestic consumption of cars.

B. Arrange for students to visit any nearby automotive manufacturing plant and/or have students interview a person connected with a North American or Japanese auto manufacturing or importing firm.

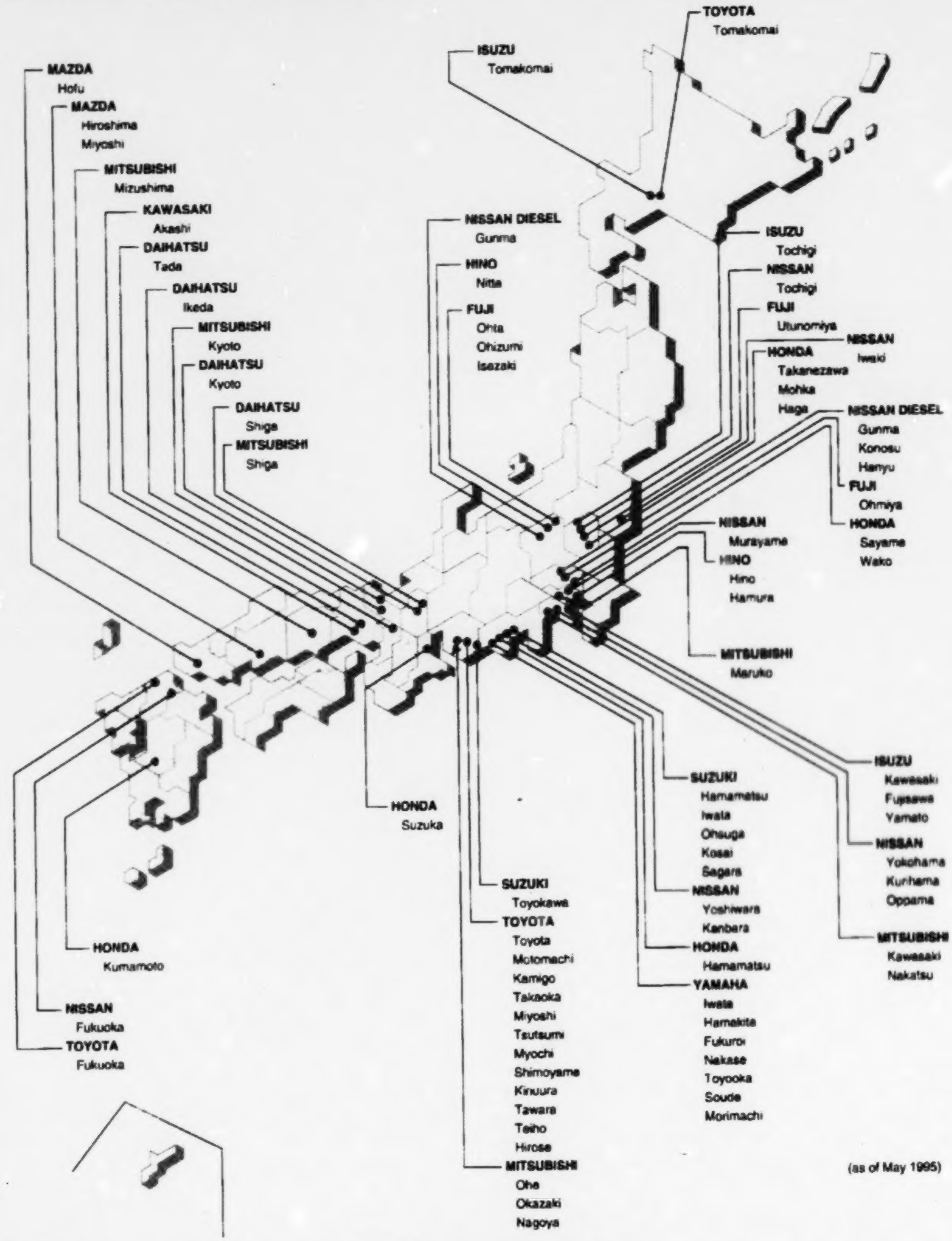
TEACHER RESOURCES

The Motor Industry of Japan – 1995. Japan Automobile Manufacturer's Association, Inc., Write to JAMA, 1050 17th Street, NW, Suite 410, Washington, DC 20036, or call (202) 296-8537. This booklet is a major source of up-to-date data on the Japanese motor vehicle industry.

Japan 1996: An International Comparison. Keizai Koho Center c/o Japan Business Information Center, The Nippon Club Tower, 20th floor, 145 West 57th Street, New York, NY 10019. This handbook (updated yearly) contains many kinds of statistics on Japan.

APPENDIX 1

AUTOMOTIVE PLANTS OF MEMBERS OF THE JAPAN AUTOMOBILE MANUFACTURERS ASSOCIATION, INC., IN JAPAN, 1995


TOYOTA
Tomakomai
ISUZU
Tomakomai
MAZDA
Hofu
MAZDA
Hiroshima
Miyoshi
MITSUBISHI
Mizushima
KAWASAKI
Akashi
DAIHATSU
Tada
DAIHATSU
Ikeda
MITSUBISHI
Kyoto
DAIHATSU
Kyoto
DAIHATSU
Shiga
MITSUBISHI
Shiga
NISSAN DIESEL
Gunma
HINO
Nitta
FUJI
Ohta
Ohizumi
Isezaki
ISUZU
Tochigi
NISSAN
Tochigi
FUJI
Utunomiya
NISSAN
Iwaki
HONDA
Takanezawa
Mohka
Haga
NISSAN DIESEL
Gunma
Konosu
Hanyu
FUJI
Ohmiya
HONDA
Sayama
Wako
NISSAN
Murayama
HINO
Hino
Hamura
MITSUBISHI
Maruko
ISUZU
Kawasaki
Fujisawa
Yamato
NISSAN
Yokohama
Kurihama
Oppama
MITSUBISHI
Kawasaki
Nakatsu
SUZUKI
Hamamatsu
Iwata
Ohsuga
Kosai
Sagara
NISSAN
Yoshiwara
Kanbara
HONDA
Hamamatsu
YAMAHA
Iwata
Hamakita
Fukuroi
Nakase
Toyooka
Soude
Morimachi
HONDA
Suzuka
SUZUKI
Toyokawa
TOYOTA
Toyota
Motomachi
Kamigo
Takaoka
Miyoshi
Tsutsumi
Myochi
Shimoyama
Kinuura
Tawara
Teiho
Hirose
MITSUBISHI
Ohe
Okazaki
Nagoya
HONDA
Kumamoto
NISSAN
Fukuoka
TOYOTA
Fukuoka

(as of May 1995)

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APPENDIX 2

JAPANESE AND U.S. AUTOMOBILE MANUFACTURING COMPANIES

1994

JAPAN	*Sales (US$ millions)*	*Profit (US$ millions)*	*Employees (000s)*
Toyota	$88,159	$1,185	110.5
Nissan	58,732	-1,672	145.6
Honda	39,927	619	92.8
Mitsubishi	34,370	127	28.7
Mazda	22,189	–414	35.4

U.S.	*Sales (US$ millions)*	*Profit (US$ millions)*	*Employees (000s)*
GM	$154,951	$4,901	892.8
Ford	128,439	6,308	337.8
Chrysler	52,224	3,713	121.0

(Based upon data from *Fortune*, August 7, 1995, p. F1-10)

NOTE: It is important to keep in mind that these figures correspond to years when the U.S. automobile industry was in its stage of recovery, and the Japanese, in its worst stage ever. From 1995, the Japanese automobile industry has started to recover.

APPENDIX 3

RESULTS OF STUDENT CALCULATIONS

(for teacher use)

1994

JAPAN	*Sales (US$ millions)*	*Profit (US$ millions)*	*Employees (000s)*
Toyota	$88,159	$1,185	110.5
Nissan	58,732	–1,672	145.6
Honda	39,927	619	92.8
Mitsubishi	34,370	127	28.7
Mazda	22,189	–414	35.4
TOTALS	243,377	–155	413

U.S.	*Sales (US$ millions)*	*Profit (US$ millions)*	*Employees (000s)*
GM	$154,951	$4,901	692.8
Ford	128,439	5,308	337.8
Chrysler	52,224	3,713	121.0
TOTALS	335,614	13,922	1,151.6

a. Profit as a % of sales:
Japan: minus U.S.: 4.1%

b. Profit per employee:
Japan: minus U.S.: $12,089.30

c. Sales per employee:
Japan: $589,000 U.S.: $291,000

(Based upon data from *Fortune*, August 7, 1995, p. F1-10)

NOTE: It is important to keep in mind that these figures correspond to years when the U.S. automobile industry was in its stage of recovery, and the Japanese, in its worst stage ever. From 1995, the Japanese automobile industry has started to recover.

APPENDIX 4

WHO MAKES JAPANESE CARS?

Whether they are going to be shipped overseas or sold in Japan, the automobiles rolling off the assembly lines of Japan are being assembled and marketed by the large auto manufacturing corporations of Japan: Toyota, Nissan, Honda, Mazda, Isuzu, and the like. But these industrial giants only do the final and most obvious work of the Japanese auto industry.

The making of Japanese cars depends, even more than in North America, on a vast network of small firms which make the parts – and the parts of the parts – of Japanese automobiles. For every Toyota or Isuzu or Mazda there are hundreds of small firms making parts for the big factories. These firms make parts to the big manufacturers' specifications and generally accept the prices the big companies are willing to pay.

These small supplier firms are frequently family owned, and cannot give their own employees the "life-time employment" guarantees or the generous benefits that the workers in bigger companies enjoy. As a matter of fact, in years when business is poor, the "life-time employment" in the giant corporations is partly made possible by the ability of the large corporations to cut other costs. A major way in which the big companies cut costs is by reducing their payments to the small supplier firms. These small firms are then forced to reduce their own costs to survive. They frequently can do this only by laying off their employees or cutting their employee's pay. In this way, the small supplier companies are a kind of financial "cushion" for the large corporations.

This arrangement is not unique to the motor vehicle industry. Many large Japanese manufacturing firms depend on small supplier firms. In the auto industry more than half of the jobs may be in these supplier firms. Many more Japanese jobs are connected with supplying materials and services for automobiles, both those exported and those sold domestically.

It is also true that a number of the parts and materials, especially materials, for Japanese automobiles are imported from other parts of the world, including North America. (Source: Data compiled by John Hergesheimer)

Automobile Production in Japan

Automobile production is the second largest industrial sector of the Japanese economy (after electrical machinery and equipment). By the latest accounts, it represents nearly 13.4 percent of the value of the nation's total manufacturing output and 31.5 percent of the value of the machinery industries' combined output. In 1993 the value of domestic automotive production decreased an estimated 5.9 percent over the previous year, to approximately Y41,678 billion.

The number of people in Japan engaged in work related to automobiles is approximately 6.5 million. Given that there are currently around 63 million workers in Japan, this means that about one in every ten workers is employed directly or indirectly by the automobile industry.

Source: *The Motor Industry of Japan – 1995.* (Japan Automobile Manufacturing Assoc.)

APPENDIX 5

IMPORTED PASSENGER CARS IN JAPAN 1990–1992

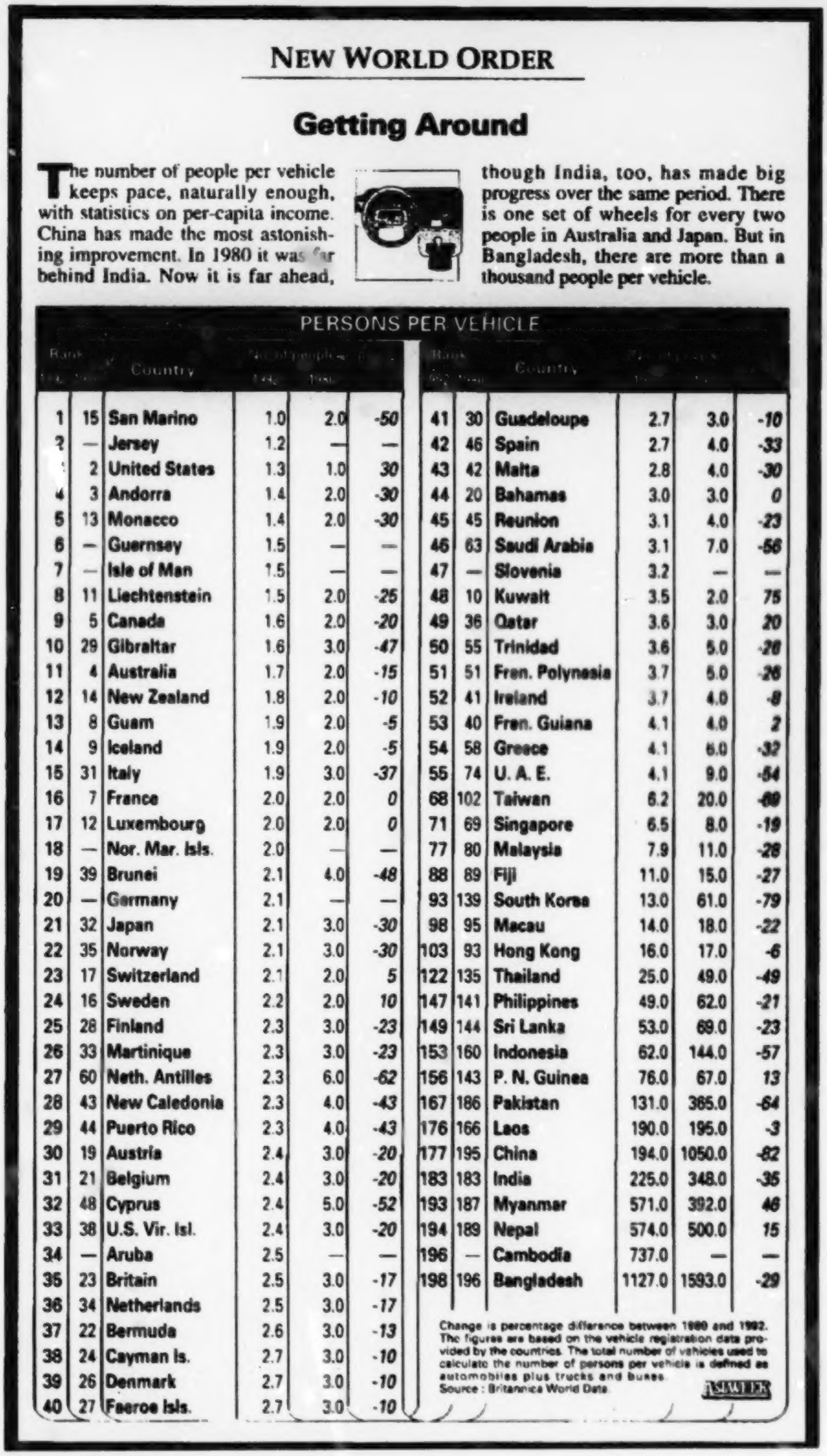
3-5 The Number of Import Passenger Cars in Japan (1990 —1992)
(1,000 units, %)

	1990		1991		1992	
	Number	Share	Number	Share	Number	Share
	(units)	(%)	(units)	(%)	(units)	(%)
U.S.A. [a]	28,602	13	30,128	15	37,085	20
U.K.	19,653	9	17,130	9	14,914	8
Germany	137,442	62	119,048	60	104,680	58
France	14,018	6	10,854	6	7,906	4
Italy	5,933	3	5,754	3	4,573	3
Sweden	13,704	6	12,363	6	10,494	6
Others	2,354	1	1,907	1	1,765	1
Total	**221,708**	**100**	**197,184**	**100**	**181,417**	**100**

a) are included in cars of the Japanese companies made in the U.S.A.
Source: Japan Automobile Importers' Association

Source: *Japan 1995: An International Comparison.* Keizai Koho Center, Tokyo, 1995. Reproduced by permission of the Keizai Koho Center.

PERSONS PER VEHICLE IN SELECTED NATIONS



NEW WORLD ORDER

Getting Around

The number of people per vehicle keeps pace, naturally enough, with statistics on per-capita income. China has made the most astonishing improvement. In 1980 it was far behind India. Now it is far ahead, though India, too, has made big progress over the same period. There is one set of wheels for every two people in Australia and Japan. But in Bangladesh, there are more than a thousand people per vehicle.

PERSONS PER VEHICLE

Rank		Country	No. of people [illegible]		
1992	1980		1992	1980	
1	15	**San Marino**	1.0	2.0	*-50*
2	—	**Jersey**	1.2	—	—
[illegible]	2	**United States**	1.3	1.0	*30*
4	3	**Andorra**	1.4	2.0	*-30*
5	13	**Monaco**	1.4	2.0	*-30*
6	—	**Guernsey**	1.5	—	—
7	—	**Isle of Man**	1.5	—	—
8	11	**Liechtenstein**	1.5	2.0	*-25*
9	5	**Canada**	1.6	2.0	*-20*
10	29	**Gibraltar**	1.6	3.0	*-47*
11	4	**Australia**	1.7	2.0	*-15*
12	14	**New Zealand**	1.8	2.0	*-10*
13	8	**Guam**	1.9	2.0	*-5*
14	9	**Iceland**	1.9	2.0	*-5*
15	31	**Italy**	1.9	3.0	*-37*
16	7	**France**	2.0	2.0	*0*
17	12	**Luxembourg**	2.0	2.0	*0*
18	—	**Nor. Mar. Isls.**	2.0	—	—
19	39	**Brunei**	2.1	4.0	*-48*
20	—	**Germany**	2.1	—	—
21	32	**Japan**	2.1	3.0	*-30*
22	35	**Norway**	2.1	3.0	*-30*
23	17	**Switzerland**	2.1	2.0	*5*
24	16	**Sweden**	2.2	2.0	*10*
25	28	**Finland**	2.3	3.0	*-23*
26	33	**Martinique**	2.3	3.0	*-23*
27	60	**Neth. Antilles**	2.3	6.0	*-62*
28	43	**New Caledonia**	2.3	4.0	*-43*
29	44	**Puerto Rico**	2.3	4.0	*-43*
30	19	**Austria**	2.4	3.0	*-20*
31	21	**Belgium**	2.4	3.0	*-20*
32	48	**Cyprus**	2.4	5.0	*-52*
33	38	**U.S. Vir. Isl.**	2.4	3.0	*-20*
34	—	**Aruba**	2.5	—	—
35	23	**Britain**	2.5	3.0	*-17*
36	34	**Netherlands**	2.5	3.0	*-17*
37	22	**Bermuda**	2.6	3.0	*-13*
38	24	**Cayman Is.**	2.7	3.0	*-10*
39	26	**Denmark**	2.7	3.0	*-10*
40	27	**Faeroe Isls.**	2.7	3.0	*-10*
41	30	**Guadeloupe**	2.7	3.0	*-10*
42	46	**Spain**	2.7	4.0	*-33*
43	42	**Malta**	2.8	4.0	*-30*
44	20	**Bahamas**	3.0	3.0	*0*
45	45	**Reunion**	3.1	4.0	*-23*
46	63	**Saudi Arabia**	3.1	7.0	*-56*
47	—	**Slovenia**	3.2	—	—
48	10	**Kuwait**	3.5	2.0	*75*
49	36	**Qatar**	3.6	3.0	*20*
50	55	**Trinidad**	3.6	5.0	*-28*
51	51	**Fren. Polynesia**	3.7	5.0	*-26*
52	41	**Ireland**	3.7	4.0	*-8*
53	40	**Fren. Guiana**	4.1	4.0	*2*
54	58	**Greece**	4.1	6.0	*-32*
55	74	**U. A. E.**	4.1	9.0	*-54*
68	102	**Taiwan**	6.2	20.0	*-69*
71	69	**Singapore**	6.5	8.0	*-19*
77	80	**Malaysia**	7.9	11.0	*-28*
88	89	**Fiji**	11.0	15.0	*-27*
93	139	**South Korea**	13.0	61.0	*-79*
98	95	**Macau**	14.0	18.0	*-22*
103	93	**Hong Kong**	16.0	17.0	*-6*
122	135	**Thailand**	25.0	49.0	*-49*
147	141	**Philippines**	49.0	62.0	*-21*
149	144	**Sri Lanka**	53.0	69.0	*-23*
153	160	**Indonesia**	62.0	144.0	*-57*
156	143	**P. N. Guinea**	76.0	67.0	*13*
167	186	**Pakistan**	131.0	365.0	*-64*
176	166	**Laos**	190.0	195.0	*-3*
177	195	**China**	194.0	1050.0	*-82*
183	183	**India**	225.0	348.0	*-35*
193	187	**Myanmar**	571.0	392.0	*46*
194	189	**Nepal**	574.0	500.0	*15*
196	—	**Cambodia**	737.0	—	—
198	196	**Bangladesh**	1127.0	1593.0	*-29*

Change is percentage difference between 1980 and 1992. The figures are based on the vehicle registration data provided by the countries. The total number of vehicles used to calculate the number of persons per vehicle is defined as automobiles plus trucks and buses.
Source : Britannica World Data

ASIAWEEK

Source: *Asiaweek* (Hong Kong), October 12, 1994. Reproduced by permission of *Asiaweek*.

TOPIC

Agriculture: Partners in Trade

by Thomas J. Sorosiak
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NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

VII. Production, Distribution and Consumption

- i. distinguish between domestic and global economic systems, and explain how the two interact.

IX. Global Connections

- d. analyze causes, consequences, and possible solutions to persistent… global issues [such as food production and food consumption].

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson will help students understand the traditional background of Japanese farming and the problems in Japanese agriculture today as well as their implications for international trade and food supply.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- compare Japanese and North American dietary habits.
- compare Japanese and North American farming, both in terms of processes and products.
- identify patterns of Japanese agricultural imports and exports.
- identify world-wide problems of food production.

Attitude – Students will:

- appreciate the changing role of farming in Japanese society.
- acknowledge the importance of farmers and farming in the context of the world food supply.

Skills – Students will:

- derive information and form conclusions from maps, tables, and charts.

TIME ALLOTMENT

3 class sessions, or 4 if a video is used.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- almanacs and atlases
- topographical and climate maps of Japan (optional)
- pictures or video of Japanese rice farming (optional) – for sources: see Teacher Resources below.
- VCR if necessary
- poster paper and markers to make charts or graphs
- Appendices:
  1. Table: Food Intake by Country – one for each small group or overhead.
  2. List: Facts and Statistics about Japan – one for each small group.
  3. Article: Men, Women, and Rice – one for each student.
  4. Table: Principal Farm Products – one for each student.
  5. Tables: Data on Japan's Foreign Trade – one for each student.
  6. Article: Problems on the Farm and Observations on the State of Japanese Agriculture, one for each student.

PROCEDURE

A. Tell students that Japan has some problems with farming and that some of them affect North American trade with Japan. Explain that the first clues are geographical.

B. Divide the class into small groups. Ask students in groups to summarize what facts they know about Japan's geography, climate, and population that affect agriculture and food supply. Challenge them to find out about topography, climate (including growing season), population density, and the like. They may use atlases, almanacs and any other common references available. Supply topographical and climate maps wherever possible. Reach some class-wide conclusions, for example, Japan has plenty of rainfall for crops.

C. Ask each small group to make a list of the three types of food – not particular dishes – they think the Japanese eat most. Survey the groups to get answers. (The main foods used in Japanese cooking are seafood, vegetables, and rice.) Then ask them to guess whether Americans eat more or less of each type. Ask them to think of types of food that Americans eat which have not appeared on the lists of foods the Japanese eat. Give each group a copy of Appendix 1 – Food Intake By Country, explaining what the data means, and ask each group to report on the major differences they can find between the diets of the Japanese, the Chinese, and Americans.

D. Ask the entire class to brainstorm a list of factors which could affect the food supply of a nation. Be sure that they include – and understand – such factors as topography, soil types, growing season, water, population, farming practices, soil conservation, trade agreements, trade restrictions, labor supply, land ownership, government supports, government regulations, and transportation infrastructure. Ask the class to review their list, noting which factors could cause food shortages and which ones could alleviate food shortages. (Many factors could cause or alleviate food shortages.) Ask if they think that food surpluses could ever be a problem. (This question can be posed and then left unresolved for now.)

E. Ask small groups to make lists of items picked from the class's "factors list" (Step D) that might apply to Japan. After they have worked for a few minutes, give each group a copy of Appendix 2 – Facts and Statistics About Japan, telling them that some of these facts may help them make some connections between the factors and Japan. Encourage them to revise their lists.

F. Give each student a copy of the short article, Appendix 3 – Men, Women, and Rice: Farming in Japan, and ask them to read it. Ask small groups to discuss the differences they find between farming in Japan and farming in North America. (Classes in some geographical areas may need help in having enough information about farming in the US or Canada.) Reporting results back to the whole class is optional. Large pictures or slides of rice paddies, transplanting rice seedlings, and rice transplanting machines would be excellent here (if they are available) or a short videoclip on the same subject would be even better.

G. Ask the small groups to determine what products come from Japanese farms and compare these with the farm products from other major nations. Give each student a copy of Appendix 4 – Principal Farm Products, but ask them to work in groups. Assign the farm products of one nation to each group. Each group should make a pie-chart or bar-graph of the quantities of each product for its assigned nation. Groups will present their charts to the class. Have the group assigned to Japan present its chart first. Then have each other group present its chart and compare its nation's farm products with Japan's.

H. Ask the whole class to make some hypotheses based on these charts about what farm products the Japanese may import or may export. Put these on the board.

I. Give each student a copy of Appendix 5 – Data on Japan's Foreign Trade, explaining that this information will "test" (validate or invalidate) the hypotheses about Japan's imports and exports of farm products. Take time to explain data on each table and the kind of information given.

J. Ask each committee to prepare its own list of changes to be made in the hypotheses on the board based on the data they are finding. They should also add new generalizations of their own. Each group should share these with the class, changing the hypotheses on the board until the class has a set of tested generalizations about Japanese agricultural imports and exports. Try to get some generalizations from the class about the sources (nations) from which Japan's agricultural imports come.

K. Give each student a copy of the articles, Appendix 6 – Problems on the Farm and Observations on the State of Japanese Agriculture. Ask them to read and compare them. Using the whole class, ask the question, "What are the challenges facing Japanese agriculture?" Place this list on the board.

L. Ask how many of the items on this list (Step K) might be true to some degree of North American agriculture as well. Help the class to see that many industrialized nations have some of the same kinds of challenges regarding agriculture and farmers, e.g. farm prices are undependable; levels of production are subject to natural fluctuations; adjusting the number of farm families to the needs of production and the farm income is tricky and painful; etc. This is a place to discuss the issue of farm surpluses.

M. Lead a concluding class discussion on "How much do we need farmers?" Deal with the importance of farmers in the world and how the decline of farmers would impact food production. Considering the increase in the population of the world and the decrease in the world's farmers, how will the people of Japan and the world have their food needs met in the 21st Century?

ASSESSMENT

A. Informal assessment of the class discussions and small group reports.

B. Student impromptu essays on the problems of Japanese farmers, or on assuring global food supply

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Student teams can investigate the politics of agriculture in Japan.

B. Students can investigate the United States' or Canada's agricultural import and export patterns to see what trade barriers exist.

C. Students can research rice as a global grain and the issues related to development of new strains. An excellent source is "Rice: the Essential Harvest" by Peter T. White in the May 1994 issue of *National Geographic.*

TEACHER RESOURCES

Japan: Profile of a Nation. Tokyo: Kodansha International Ltd., 1994.

Japan: The Island Empire. International Video Network, San Ramon, California. (Video)

Heinz, Elgin, "Teaching About Japan 1941-1991," *Social Education*, November/December, 1991.

The Japan of Today. Tokyo: International Society for Educational Information, Inc., 1993.

About Japan Series. Food and Agriculture in Japan (revised). Tokyo: Foreign Press Center, December 1988.

APPENDIX 1

FOOD INTAKE BY COUNTRY

2-3 Food Intake by Country[a]
(grams)

	Japan (1991)	U.S.A. (1988)	China (1984–86)
Cereals	283	208	729
Rice	192	22	—
Potatoes & Starch	106	92	188
Sugar	57	165	18
Beans	27	20	26
Vegetables	338	253	210
Fruit	135	172	41
Meat	110	330	56
Eggs	55	40	12
Fish & Shellfish	16[illegible]	22	17
Cow's Milk[b]	232	697	11
Fats & Oils	47	71	14
Calorie Intake[c]	2,834^{Kcal}	3,642^{Kcal}	—

[a] All figures refer to daily intake per person.
[b] Includes dairy products [c] 1988-1990
Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Japan

Source: *Japan 1995: An International Comparison.* Keizai Koho Center, Tokyo, 1995. Reproduced by permission of the Keizai Koho Center.

APPENDIX 2

FACTS AND STATISTICS ABOUT JAPAN

(Note: Information obtained from interviews/ information in Japan, unless otherwise noted.)

1. Population of Japan is 125 million, 2.5% of the total world population, and about one half that of the U.S.. Japan is the world's seventh most populous nation.
2. Japan's population density in 1992 was 865 persons per square mile, compared with 71 persons per square mile in the United States or 7 in Canada.
3. Average farm in Japan is .7 to 1.4 hectares, depending upon the crop category. (1 hectare = 2.471 acres)
4. One hectare of rice will produce 15 tons of rice.
5. Rice production has doubled in Japan since 1960, but the per capita rice production has declined.
6. Farming households account for 11.2% of the total households.
7. There are 3.83 million farm households in Japan (according to the "Agricultural Census") but only one-sixth (620,000) were considered by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries to be "core farmers" – the people Japan is counting on to produce its future food supplies. (Source: *LOOK JAPAN*, Vol 40, No. 465, December 1994.)
8. The number of Japanese working in agriculture fell from 3.7 million in 1985 to 3.13 million in 1990, and the figure is expected to drop to 2.11 million by 2000. (Source: *Japan Echo*, Vol. XXI, No. 2, Summer 1994.)
9. In 1994 Japan had about 3 million hectares of paddy (rice) fields. (Source: *Japan Echo*, Vol. XXI, No. 2, Summer 1994.)
10. In 1985, Japan's total agricultural output was Y11,756 billion with rice accounting for Y3,862 billion; but in 1990 rice declined to Y3,196 billion. Rice remained the largest single crop. (Source: *LOOK JAPAN*, Vol. 40, No. 465, December 1994.)

APPENDIX 3

MEN, WOMEN AND RICE: FARMING IN JAPAN

Japan is not an easy country in which to farm. The woods and mountains which make the land so beautiful leave only 14% of the land suitable for agriculture. The fact that Japanese farmers have been able to supply almost all the food for the growing Japanese population until recently is an indication (1) that rice is a remarkably productive crop, and (2) that Japanese farmers are ingenious and very hard-working.

More people can be supported per acre by rice than by any other cereal crop. Growing rice, however, requires a very large amount of human labor and skill. The care of the elaborate paddies and their water systems as well as the transplanting of the rice seedlings into the paddies are very hard work and time consuming. All other crops and farm work must be scheduled around the critical phases of the rice crop.

Rice continues to use about half of all the farmland in Japan, but most farm families also have some land which is not suitable for rice, and that land is planted with other crops. The Japanese also used to grow mulberry trees for feeding silkworms, but that is rare in Japan today. Livestock are not numerous, because they either use valuable land for grazing or require imported food.

Before the Meiji Restoration in 1868, 80% of the Japanese population was involved in agriculture. Then, and since then, improving agriculture has meant finding ways of producing more rice (or other crops) per hectare (a Japanese unit of land area).

Japanese farms have always been very small. The average farmer owned several fields or rice paddies in and around the village. Each family worked cooperatively on each others' fields as well as their own. Gradually, in the last 300 years, more and more fields were owned by families other than those who worked them. By the 1930s, fewer than one-third of farming families owned all of the fields they farmed; the other fields were owned by landlords. However, very few of these farm landlords owned really large amounts of land, and most of them were active farmers themselves.

In 1945, the American occupation authorities made far-reaching land reforms. Farmland was to be owned by the families who farmed it, and the size of farms was strictly limited to 3 hectares. Farm landlords largely disappeared, and, by 1949, 90% of Japanese farmland was owned by the families who worked on it. Due to a variety of factors, Japanese farmers became prosperous in the postwar period.

As new machinery became available, however, Japanese farmers found that it could not be used efficiently on such small farms. Instead of being able to farm more efficiently with machines, the farmers had to use human labor, which was becoming more and more expensive. The price of Japanese farm products had to rise higher and higher to keep up with the rising costs of farming. Because the farmers were well represented in the Diet (Japanese parliament), farmers were able to get laws to keep out cheaper foreign farm products.

Shortages of labor drove up the cost of farm labor. At the same time, many children of farm families got better paying (and easier) jobs in industry instead of taking over the family farm. The farm population began to decline and fewer farmers worked full-time at farming.

Finally, about 20 years ago, a number of smaller machines suitable for Japanese farms became available. The most important of these were the rice-transplanting machines which eliminated the back-breaking work of planting the seedlings in the paddies – mostly done by women in the past. Today, the vast majority of Japanese farms are largely mechanized.

This rapid mechanization, along with chemical fertilizers, made it possible for Japanese farms to produce even more food per hectare with fewer workers. But the farms are still small and cannot produce food as cheaply as the larger farms in other nations.

Sources:

Bowring, Richard, and Peter Kornicki, eds. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Japan*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1993.

Japan: Profile of a Nation. Tokyo: Kodansha Ltd., 1994.

APPENDIX 4

PRINCIPAL FARM PRODUCTS

2-1 Agricultural Area, Population, and Production (1992)

	Principal Farm Products (1,000 metric tons)						
	Wheat	Rice	Maize (Corn)	Soybeans	Vegetables and Melons	Fruit	Cow's Milk
Former U.S.S.R.	89,925	2,006	7,382	940	29,572	11,720	88,882
China	101,003	188,150	95,340	9,707	119,786	23,102	5,223
Australia	15,003	1,128	210	51	1,591	2,608	6,940
U.S.A.	66,920	8,123	240,774	59,780	30,438	26,956	68,966
Canada	29,870	—	4,531	1,387	1,869	766	7,380
France	32,600	124	14,613	77	7,179	12,495	25,341
U.K.	14,185	—	—	—	4,170	547	14,692
Germany	15,542	—	2,139	3	4,224	6,530	28,191
Italy	8,943	1,216	7,170	1,434	14,120	19,820	9,800
Japan	800	13,255	1	197	13,737	4,551	8,300
World, Total	563,649	525,475	526,410	114,011	456,170	369,518	455,400

a) 1991 includes arable land, land continually used to grow crops and as meadows and pastures.
b) 1 ha=0.01km²=2.4711 acres
c) Figures include all economically active persons engaged principally in agriculture.
Source: United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), *Production Yearbook*

Source: *Japan 1995: An International Comparison.* Keizai Koho Center, Tokyo, 1995. Reproduced by permission of the Keizai Koho Center.

2-2 Japan's Food Demand and Supply (FY 1992)

(1,000 metric tons)

	Domestic Production[a] (A)	Foreign Trade		Domestic Consumption[b] (B)	Self-Sufficiency Ratio (A/B)
		Imports	Exports		
Cereals	11,644	28,437	0	39,798	29.3 %
Rice	10,573	92	0	10,502	100.7
Wheat	759	5,650	0	6,274	12.1
Maize (Corn)	25	617	0	637	3.9
Beans	324	5,061	0	5,338	6.1
Vegetables	15,605	1,747	4	17,348	90.0
Fruit	4,837	3,440	27	8,166	59.2
Meat	3,399	1,824	7	5,216	65.2
Eggs	2,575	92	0	2,667	96.6
Cow's Milk[c]	8,617	2,444	2	10,695	80.6
Fish & Shellfish	8,477	4,718	614	11,777	72.0
Fats & Oils	2,134	628	52	2,690	79.3
Soy Sauce	1,214	0	12	1,195	101.6

a) Includes both domestic and imported inputs, such as feed and raw materials
b) Domestic consumption=Domestic production+Imports-Exports ± Changes in stocks
c) Includes dairy products
Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Japan

2-6 Import of Foodstuffs by Country (1992)

(US$ million, %)

	Total[a]		Meat & Meat Preparations (01)	Dairy Products & Eggs (02)	Fish & Fish Products (03)	Cereals & Cereal Preparations (04)	Vegetables & Fruit (05)	Fancy Foods (07)	Beverages (11)	Tobacco (12)
	Amount (0, 1)[b]	Percent of Total Imports								
Germany	39,344	9.7 %	6,441	3,749	2,036	2,372	12,548	2,976	3,074	1,237
Japan	**37,229**	**16.1**	**6,462**	**672**	**12,869**	**4,849**	**4,886**	**1,240**	**1,967**	**1,965**
U.S.A.	30,372	5.5	2,931	540	5,975	1,345	6,565	3,476	4,343	1,369
France	24,206	10.2	4,228	1,935	2,895	1,611	5,865	1,703	1,347	1,236
U.K.	23,646	10.7	3,580	1,957	1,754	1,768	5,491	1,568	2,756	811
Netherlands	16,562	12.3	1,120	2,661	786	1,815	3,869	1,396	1,163	866
Italy	15,860	9.5	2,460	2,868	1,873	665	2,528	782	732	1,221
Canada	7,499	6.1	789	162	665	580	2,637	654	596	50
Australia	1,871	4.4	29	111	353	96	348	229	224	60
OECD, Total	**248,318**	**9.2**	**32,522**	**18,815**	**36,074**	**20,643**	**64,084**	**17,560**	**20,813**	**10,915**

a) Among foodstuff items, live animals chiefly for food (00), sugar (06), animal feed materials (08), and miscellaneous food preparations (09) are omitted in the table; thus, the total amount may not be the sum total of the breakdown items. b) The figures in parentheses are item code numbers based on the SITC (Standard International Trade Classification) method.
Source: OECD, *Statistics on Foreign Trade*

Source: *Japan 1995: An International Comparison.* Keizai Koho Center, Tokyo, 1995. Reproduced by permission of the Keizai Koho Center.

DATA ON JAPAN'S FOREIGN TRADE

4-4 Exports and Imports by Commodity and Country (1993)
(US$ million, customs-clearance basis, exports f.o.b., imports c.i.f.)

		Foodstuffs (0, 1)[a]	Raw Materials (2, 4)	Fuels (3)	Crude Oil (333)	Chemical Products (5)	Machinery Transportation Equipment (7)	Motor Vehicles (78)	Other Industrial Products (6, 8)	Total of Products (5, 6, 7, 8, 9)
Japan	Exports	1,884	2,300	1,601	—	19,061	243,147	78,410	66,304	328,511
	Imports	37,229	27,642	53,070	29,665	16,939	37,676	6,884	55,329	109,944
U.S.A.	Exports	39,928	26,815	11,122	27	43,956	200,933	36,622	84,303	329,193
	Imports	30,372	16,393	58,662	41,200	28,886	237,068	77,052	162,921	428,875
Germany	Exports	22,077	8,935	5,285	22	54,278	213,535	71,540	119,721	387,534
	Imports	39,344	19,366	30,423	14,227	34,951	141,060	40,695	134,375	310,405
France	Exports	34,604	6,715	5,374	—	31,433	91,218	27,636	61,932	184,583
	Imports	24,206	9,020	20,561	9,728	26,348	83,313	23,157	74,715	184,375
U.K.	Exports	15,287	3,450	12,164	7,841	26,286	77,667	15,606	52,352	156,306
	Imports	23,646	8,966	12,306	6,599	20,461	83,334	21,341	70,539	174,334
Italy	Exports	8,863	2,455	655	14	12,506	61,382	13,120	77,175	151,065
	Imports	15,860	13,480	12,702	10,209	20,968	55,885	22,493	44,296	121,148

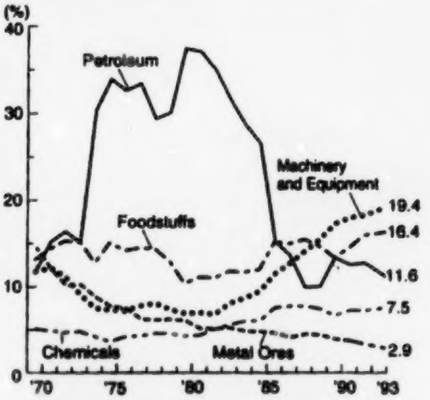
a) Commodity categories are based on SITC standards.
Source: OECD, *Foreign Trade by Commodity*

4-12 Japan's Imports by Commodity
(US$ million, customs-clearance basis, f.o.b. value)

	1973	1983	1991	1992	1993
Foodstuffs	6,009	14,896	34,473	37,288	39,413
Textile Materials	2,188	2,077	2,456	2,012	1,523
Metal Ores and Scrap	4,033	6,513	8,777	9,596	6,956
Other Raw Materials	6,038	9,622	15,933	16,386	18,734
Mineral Fuels	8,327	58,925	54,756	52,738	48,840
Coal	1,354	4,877	6,395	6,073	5,913
Petroleum [a]	6,000	40,063	30,181	30,129	27,990
Chemicals	1,865	7,207	17,412	17,355	17,964
Machinery and Equipment	3,486	10,409	42,851	42,853	46,634
Others	6,368	16,744	60,079	54,793	60,605
Imports, Total	38,314	126,393	236,737	233,021	240,670

a) Crude and partly refined
Source: Japan Tariff Association, *The Summary Report: Trade of Japan*

4-13 Japan's Imports by Commodity (1970—1993)



Source: Japan Tariff Association, *The Summary Report: Trade of Japan*

Source: *Japan 1995: An International Comparison.* Keizai Koho Center, Tokyo, 1995. Reproduced by permission of the Keizai Koho Center.

APPENDIX 6
PROBLEMS ON THE FARM

Most industrialized nations have been forced to give government assistance of one sort or another to their agriculture. This may mean laws keeping food prices up. It may mean giving farmers subsidies (extra money) to keep producing crops. It may mean laws taxing foreign farm products to discourage their being imported.

Japan has used all three forms of government assistance, and it has required a very high level of government support to keep Japanese agriculture profitable and alive. This has resulted in very high food prices for Japanese consumers and has also led to trade problems with other nations that wish to sell their farm products to Japan, but have to pay large tariffs or face other disadvantages in exporting to Japan. Japan's system for keeping farm income up is very complicated, but it revolves mainly around rice prices, because this is by far the most important Japanese crop.

On the other hand, the Japanese consumption of rice has dropped as more Japanese adopt new foods and eating habits from the West and elsewhere. But farmers trying to grow other food crops need subsidies and price supports as well.

In the meantime, more and more Japanese farmers work at farming only part-time. And more and more young Japanese do not carry on the farming careers of their parents. So there are fewer full-time Japanese farmers than a few years ago, and more of the farmers are older men and women. Even the farmers who continue to live in the villages often have off-the-farm careers. (See table, below.)

Number of Farm Families	*1960*	*1980*	*1989*
(in thousands)			
Full-time farm families	2078	623	603
Part-time: Mostly farming	2036	1002	574
Part-time: Mostly other occup.	1942	3036	3016
TOTAL FARM FAMILIES	6057	4661	4194

(Source: *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Japan*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1993.)

Until very recently, the farmers have had high levels of government support through various farm subsidies, price supports, and tariffs, especially on rice. This is partly because the political apportionment for seats in the House of Representatives in the Diet has favored rural districts. It is partly because the majority Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) was willing to protect farmers' interests. Now reapportionment has weakened the farmers' influence, and the LDP no longer wins all the elections. The farmers are no longer so politically protected, and recently the government agreed to allow some importation of cheaper foreign rice.

Rice has been a very emotional issue for the Japanese. The question is often raised: If we cannot even raise our own rice, how would we survive if international trade were cut off? Nonetheless, all the economic pressures on Japan (the world's seventh most populous nation) point to importing more food so the Japanese people can eat for less. Year by year, farming seems to have a less-promising future in Japan.

Sources:

Bowring, Richard, and Peter Kornicki, eds. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Japan*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1993.

Japan: Profile of a Nation. Tokyo: Kodansha Ltd., 1994.

Observations on the State of Japanese Agriculture

1. Dietary needs of the people have changed, due to a number of factors, including the influence of the Western world. As a result Japan increasingly imports a wide variety of foodstuffs.
2. Younger Japanese increasingly do not want to go into farming as a career. In 1993 only 1,700 high school graduates became farmers, a mere 0.3% of all graduates who began working after high school. (Source: *Understanding Japan*, Vol. 3, No. 2, May 1994.)
3. Although the cost of rice production continues to decline, the government rice purchase price actually increased in 1994. (Source: *Japan Link*, Vol. II, Issue XIV, July 1994.)
4. Most rice paddies are privately owned by families or are in a cooperative of local farm families sharing equipment.
5. In 1995, according to the GATT agreement, Japan opened 4 percent of its rice market to imports. Over the next six years Japan will gradually raise this rate to 8%.
6. Government environmental and health regulations requiring mandatory field testing or pesticide and insecticide use are making farming more expensive and thus reducing its profitability.
7. More than half of all Japanese farmers are over 60 years of age and the 30,000 farmers aged 16 to 29 account for only 3% of the farm population. (Source: *LOOK JAPAN*, Vol. 40, No. 465, December 1994.)

TOPIC

The Graying of Japan

by John Hergesheimer
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NCSS STANDARDS – THEMATIC STRANDS

V. Individuals, Groups, and Institutions

- g. analyze the extent to which groups and institutions meet individual needs and promote the common good in contemporary and historical settings.

VII. Production, Distribution, and Consumption

- c. consider the costs and benefits to society of allocating goods and services through private and public sectors.

INTRODUCTION – PURPOSE/RATIONALE

This lesson is designed to give high school students the opportunity to analyze the problem of supporting a rapidly- growing older population in Japan, to describe how Japan currently provides such support, and to identify measures being considered or undertaken in Japan to control the costs and improve the delivery of such support. The United States must deal with the same problem (although to a lesser extent); understanding Japan's approach may illuminate our own national debate on the same issues.

OBJECTIVES

Knowledge – Students will:

- describe and use indicators of population conditions and trends.
- identify and give reasons for Japan's current population dilemma.
- describe current Japanese provisions for the needs of retired people.
- identify general directions and specific steps being taken by Japanese society to deal with the problems of an elderly population.

Attitude – Students will:

- accept societal responsibility for the welfare of another part of the population.

Skills – Students will:

- interpret and present statistics in chart form.

TIME ALLOTMENT

2 or 3 class sessions.

RESOURCES NEEDED

- 10 to 12 sheets of chart paper or large poster paper, yard sticks, colored markers to make chart posters
- transparencies or handout sheets for Appendix 1
- handout sheets for each student of Appendices 2, 3, 4, and 5.

PROCEDURE

A. Introduce the lesson by telling students the following incident:

> In the summer of 1995, an American visitor asked the students of a Japanese high school history class, "What do you think is the biggest problem facing Japan right now?" The students answered unanimously: "Our country's aging population."

Tell the students: "Japan has a big challenge which is both social and economic. We are going to examine the problem and some of the steps the Japanese are taking to deal with it."

B. Present the population pyramids of the Philippines, the United States, and Japan in Appendix 1, either as transparencies, posters, or student handouts. Explain what a population pyramid shows and how it is organized. Explain the idea of "young populations" and "old populations," using the Philippines and Japan, respectively, as examples. Ask students to make generalizations about the age of the United States' population. Tell the class that Japan is virtually the oldest nation in the world in a demographic sense. Tell them that they will examine some information to understand how Japan has become that way.

C. Divide the class into five teams. Assign each team one or two sets of data from Appendix 2 as indicated thereon. (Team 1 has total population; Team 2 has life expectancy; Team 3 has birth and death rates in Japan; Team 4 has young and old Japanese as percentages of total population; Team 5 has the fertility rate and the infant mortality rate.) Each group will make a large wall chart showing its data from 1945 through 1994 on a bar or line graph. Each group will need to understand the basis of measurement and the meaning of their information so that they can answer questions from the class when the time comes.

D. Ask each group to report to the class, displaying its wall chart(s) and explaining the significance of the data.

E. With the wall charts on the classroom walls, have a discussion of these questions:

1. What has been happening to Japan's population growth rate? (See data on Team 1's total population chart.)
2. Is Japan's population growth due mostly to more babies or to old people living longer? (See data on Team 2's chart on life expectancy and Team 3's chart on birth rates and death rates.)

F. Discuss these questions:

1. In any nation, who supports those older people who no longer work for a living? (their families/ their own savings or investments/ their company pensions/ the government).
2. What are examples of each of these in our own nation?
3. What particular taxpayers carry the burden of the government's share? (working people who pay into pension funds).
4. What happens when the number of working people goes down and the number of retired people goes up?
5. To what degree does Japan match this pattern?

G. Tell students that social security and medical care for retired Japanese are, in some ways, like ours. Have them read the handout, Appendix 3 – Paying for Retirement in Japan, to get a very general description of the Japanese system.

H. Have the class go back into the small groups they worked in earlier. Give them population projections for Japan from 1995 to 2025 (Appendix 4). Explain that these are demographers' projections of probable Japanese population trends in the next 30 years. Ask each team to make a new wall chart of the same data as they did before, but for these next 30 years – in other words, an extension into the future of their earlier chart.

I. With the new wall charts posted, ask each group to report its findings to the class. Then pose these questions:

1. How are the Japanese going to support their older citizens in the next 30 years?
2. Is their present problem getting better or worse?
3. Why will the Japanese population begin to decrease in about 15 years? (Point out that the total number of young adults – people of parenting age – in a population is a significant factor in how many babies are born, since often: Fewer parents = fewer babies.)

J. Ask students to speculate about how Japanese approaching retirement might feel about the problem.

K. Pose the question: What do the Japanese need to do? Ask students to brainstorm some general directions that they feel the Japanese need to consider. Try to get them to consider these areas:

1. more ways to care for the elderly who cannot take care of themselves;
2. a careful trimming of certain benefits;
3. the transfer of some of the fiscal burden to the private sector;
4. achieving a better balance in the Japanese population by increasing the numbers of younger Japanese (increasing the birthrate) or by decreasing the numbers of the aged;
5. coordination of both medical care and pensions to equalize benefits to all beneficiaries and reduce costs.

L. Ask them to read Appendix 5 – Steps Toward a Japanese Solution. After students have read the article, ask them to match each of the steps listed in it with one of the five areas in Step K, above. You may wish to point out that large and complex social problems, like the "graying" of Japan, resist simple solutions and tend to require a variety of measures to solve or ameliorate them.

M. Ask the students, individually or in small groups, to write a one-page essay defining Japan's population problem and outlining at least three general directions or five specific steps being taken by the Japanese to remedy the problem.

ASSESSMENT

A. Assess the understanding of indicators and data on the basis of the small groups' reports or class discussion in steps D, I, and K, above.

B. Assess understanding of the overall problem on the basis of the essays in step M.

EXTENSION AND ENRICHMENT

A. Put Japan in a global perspective by pointing out that the Philippines have a very different set of population issues, and asking students what they might be. Ask: "Do the population issues of the United States more closely resemble those of Japan, or those of the Philippines?"

B. Organize students to locate data on the population of the United States parallel to the data they charted for Japan. Try to assess the nature of the U.S. problem in financing care of elderly Americans and compare it with Japan's.

C. Have students attempt to compare Japanese steps to control costs and improve quality of care for an older population with steps being considered in the United States.

TEACHER RESOURCES

1994 World Population Data Sheet. 1995. Population Reference Bureau, Inc., 1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 520, Washington, DC 20009-5728; Tel (202) 483-1100.

Iwabuchi, Katsuyoshi. "Overview: Social Security Today and Tomorrow," *Economic Eye*, Vol. 15, No. 2, Summer 1994. Keizai Koho Center, Japan Business Information Center, The Nippon Club Tower, 145 West 57th Street, 20th Floor, New York, NY 10019.

Martin, Linda G. *The Graying of Japan.* Population Bulletin, Vol. 44, No. 2, July 1989. Population Reference Bureau, Inc., 1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 520, Washington, DC 20009- 5728; Tel (202) 483-1100. $7.00 plus postage.

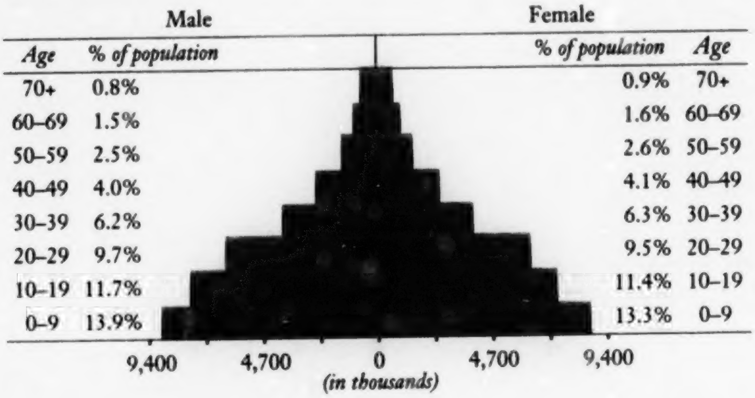
"Social Security," pp. 94-98, in *The Japan of Today.* The International Society for Educational Information, Inc., 1993. (The International Society for Educational Information, Inc., Royal Wakaba 1-chome, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan, Tel (03) 3358-1138; FAX (03) 3359-7188.) Available free of charge at the offices of Consulates General of Japan.

World Population Prospects. (1992 ed.) Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis, United Nations, New York, 1993.

THREE POPULATION PYRAMIDS

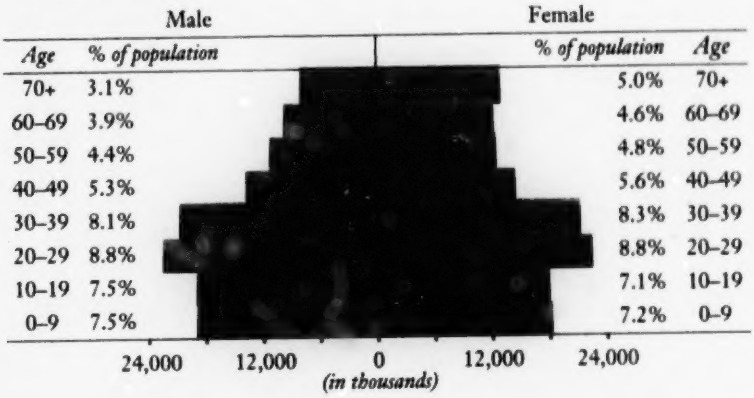
Philippines

Age Distribution



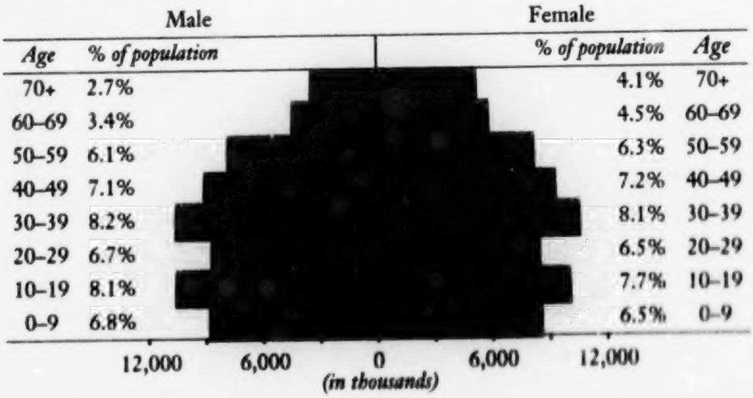
United States of America (USA)

Age Distribution



Japan

Age Distribution



APPENDIX 2
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON JAPAN, 1945-1995

Type of Data	*1945/47**	*1950*	*1955*	*1960*	*1965*	*1970*	*1975*	*1980*	*1985*	*1990*	*1994***
Team 1											
Total Population (in 1000s)	72,147	83,625	89,816	94,096	98,881	104,331	111,524	116,807	120,837	123,537	125,000
Team 2											
Life Expectancy (average)	51.9		63.9	66.8	69	71.1	73.3	75.5	76.9	78.3	79
Team 3											
Birth rate (per 1000)	27		23.7	18.1	17.2	17.8	19.2	15.2	12.7	11.1	10
Death rate (per 1000)			9.4	7.8	7.3	6.9	6.6	6.1	6.1	6.3	7
Team 4											
% of population under 15 yrs.		35.5	33.6	30.2	25.9	24	24.3	23.6	21.5	18.4	17
% of population over 65 yrs.		4.9	5.3	5.7	6.2	7.1	7.9	9	10.3	11.7	14
Team 5											
fertility rate (births per woman)			2.75	2	2.01	2	2.07	1.61	1.76	1.68	1.5
infant mortality rate (per 1000)	76.7		51	37	25	16	12	9	7	5	4.4

Notes:

* The total population is the 1945 figure; others in this column are 1947 figures.

** as of midyear, 1994

Data from Population Reference Bureau and the United Nations

APPENDIX 2

PAYING FOR RETIREMENT IN JAPAN

Not only is Japan's population going to the be the most elderly in the world, it is getting there with exceptional speed. At present rates, the percentage of the total German population over 65 years doubles in about 70 years. The percentage of the Japanese population over 65 is doubling in only 25 years.

Retirement Practices

The large corporations in Japan have generally offered "lifetime" employment (staying with the same company for one's whole career) to their employees – but just until age 55. In recent years, however, as life expectancy has gone up, the majority of those firms have raised the mandatory retirement age to 60. Because pay is generally based on seniority, however, these oldest employees cost the most to employ.

Some companies have retired workers and then "re-employed" them in lower paying and lower ranking positions. There is a lot of unemployment of Japanese men in their 50s and 60s; this means that there are more men of this age who wish to work than there are jobs available. But fewer than half of Japan's workers have ever been on the "lifetime employment" system. It has not generally been available to employees of small companies or to most women.

The basic sources of retirement income in any nation include public pensions (social security, as in the US), private pensions (from companies), part-time work, funds they have saved for themselves, and their families.

Social Security

The Japanese government has generally spent a smaller percentage of its income on social welfare than have most other developed nations. But public pensions are gradually becoming the main source of income for elderly Japanese. In ten years the number of elderly Japanese whose "major source of income" was the public pension almost doubled. Older Japanese citizens are able to rely less all the time on money they earn, and their children taking care of them. One result is that the cost of the public pension system increased 150% as fast as Japan's national income between 1979 and 1989.

A major reform of the public pension system took place in 1986. This law combined several pension plans, including pension plans run by corporations for their employees. As employees begin to work longer, their pensions benefits threatened to increase rapidly, placing another major tax burden on persons in their working years.

Savings and Family

Japanese citizens have always saved a much higher percentage of their incomes than Americans have. Japanese tax laws have provided stronger incentives for saving than for investing. (In the postwar years, the accumulation of savings capital in Japanese banks made a lot of capital available for rebuilding and industrial growth.) One reason for so much savings on the part of the Japanese was to have some money to live on once one retired. This was especially true of self-employed citizens who had no company pension plan. It gradually became apparent, as life expectancy increased, that few could save enough to live on for all those years after retirement.

Far more elderly Japanese than elderly Americans live with their adult children. This was the traditional system in Japan, and reliance on this arrangement was one reason that Japan was late in developing a social security or pension system. Today, however, this solution is used less and less. The burden of caring for elderly persons within the family often fell mainly on middle-aged women (daughters or daughters-in-law) and such women today are more apt to be working outside the home. Also, the cramped space of urban housing discourages extended family living arrangements.

Medical Care

All medical care for the elderly was paid for by the government until 1986. With the rapidly growing population over 65, the cost of this plan was becoming a major public burden, and so steps were taken to lower the percentage. Currently, elderly persons pay about 10% of their medical costs and the government's medical insurance program pays the rest. The problem of cost has been met for now, but the continuing aging of Japan's population may force further changes.

Another medical problem for the elderly in Japan is the shortage of nursing homes and other facilities to take care of persons who can no longer move around, or who are bedridden or who cannot take care of themselves. This has led to the use of regular hospitals as homes for aged Japanese who cannot take care of themselves, an unnecessarily expensive solution which creates a special burden to public health care budgets.

Paying For The System

In the late 1980s, there were seven Japanese working and paying taxes for every one elderly Japanese getting a public pension and public medical care. By 2010, there will be only three working Japanese to support every retiree. This rapid growth in the older population points to major problems in how Japanese society handles the cost of caring for the elderly.

APPENDIX 4

DEMOGRAPHIC PROJECTIONS FOR JAPAN

Type of Data	*1995*	*2000*	*2005*	*2010*	*2015*	*2020*	*2025*
Team 1							
Total Population (in 1000s)	125,879	128,066	129,816	130,578	130,022	128,710	127,034
Team 2							
Life Expectancy (average)	78.7	79.2	79.7	80.1	80.5	80.9	81.3
Team 3							
Birth rate (per 1000)	11.2	11.6	11.7	11.2	10.2	9.8	10
Death rate (per 1000)	7.5	8.2	9	10.1	11	11	12.6
Team 4							
% of population under 15 yrs.	16.8	16.4	16.7	16.9	16.3	15.6	15.1
% of population over 65 yrs.	13.9	16.2	18.1	20.1	22.9	24.2	24.4
Team 5							
fertility rate (births per woman)	1.65	1.66	1.73	1.85	1.85	1.85	1.85
infant mortality rate (per 1000)	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Data from Population Reference Bureau and the United Nations

APPENDIX 5
STEPS TO A JAPANESE SOLUTION

The "graying" of Japan has not come as a surprise to Japanese society. It was forecast years ago as the birth rate and death rate both decreased dramatically. As a result, many steps have been discussed to insure that the elderly are well taken care of without placing too great a burden on the shrinking work force who must pay the bills. Some of them are listed below. Some of these steps have already been taken, others are coming soon, and still others are being discussed and debated.

1. Faced with the inability to save enough and the reduction of benefits from public pension plans, more Japanese are beginning to buy private pension plans in the form of various insurance arrangements.
2. Japanese pension benefits have now been capped at a level equal to about 70% of a person's former income as an active employee.
3. Community-based health care for the elderly with an emphasis on preventative care is being explored.
4. Public child care and/or child allowances from the government are being urged by some citizens as ways to increase the birth rate.
5. The 1990 Old People's Welfare Law will provide more government money to construct more community retirement homes.
6. Beginning in 1993, health care has been unified, which means that all health care systems are being coordinated under the government plan. One outcome is that persons who receive more health care payments from some sources may receive less from other sources.
7. Although the Japanese constitution requires that all children receive an equal inheritance from their parents' estate, more adult children are refusing their own inheritance and, in effect, turning it over to their brother or sister who is willing to take care of their parent(s) in their older years. This is called "compensatory inheritance" and is actually a family arrangement that uses the parent's estate to help his/her family take care of him/her in the home.
8. In 1986, Japan established a universal pension system which gives almost all citizens a basic minimum pension. Other pension arrangements are not coordinated with this basic pension.
9. There is a strong move underway to persuade large companies to move the mandatory retirement age from 60 to 65, thus allowing older employees to remain employed if they wish to.
10. In 1992 a law was passed to require employers to grant one year child-care leave to the baby's mother or father. In 1995, the law's coverage was extended to all businesses.
11. Japanese law does not allow any medical firm to make a profit (although hospitals do).
12. As Japan's present large elderly population begins to die off in the early 21st century, it will not be replaced in equal numbers by persons now in their 40s and 50s, because that generation of Japanese is not so numerous.

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